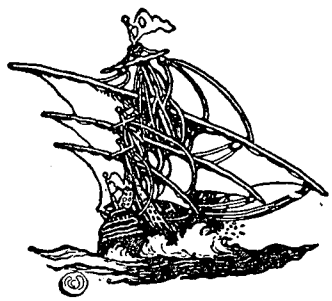
THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

JULY 15, 1926



People

On Their Way

Niles Carpenter

Roomers

Harvey W. Zorbaugh

Bound Out

Neva R. Deardorff

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Are you looking for a summer cottage? The Special Real Estate Announcements in this issue (page 479) probably offer just what you want.

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THE SURVEY

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The Gist of It

WHEN the oratory is over and the novelty of the new country has worn off, how does the immigrant worker, after all, feel about America? Benedetto, Vincinzo, Josephine and Pasquale were interviewed by Niles Carpenter, professor of sociology at the University of Buffalo, and (p. 453) they tell their story of how America has treated them and their people. Professor Carpenter was in charge of the University's study of Race Relations in Industry carried on during the 1925-26 college year.

OUT in Denver student and union window washers thrashed out the question of an apprentice wage and joined forces (p. 467). Gordon K. Chalmers, who tells of their conflict and adjustment, is secretary of the University of Denver Y.M.C.A. and a leader of student groups studying industrial conditions. He was active in bringing about the successful cooperation which he describes.

THE United States Children's Bureau has recently reported its findings on the condition of children indentured by the Wisconsin State School during the years 1913 to 1917. Neva R. Deardorff reviews this report (p. 458) and culls a group of cases that give a hint of the lives of these children in their indenture homes.

VIVIAN H. GREEN, executive secretary of the Indianapolis Travelers Aid Society, gives her impressions of the children who travel alone and the social complications that lie back of most of them (p. 460). Before her connection with the Travelers Aid, Miss Green worked with Children's Societies for a number of years.

THE mobile and anonymous life of the rooming house and what it does in the way of disintegration of standards to the lonely dwellers in those rooms is told by Harvey W. Zorbaugh, professor of sociology at Ohio Wesleyan University (p. 461). The article is based on a paper read at the annual meeting of the American Sociological Society and published with the proceedings in the Journal of Sociology.

AN account of the race questions as it confronted a Negro social worker and a Y.W.C.A. in a northern city is included in the report, All Colors, published by the Commission on Race Relations of The Inquiry, and reprinted in The Survey (p. 463).

THE progress of the dental profession from "empiricism to a practice founded on the truths tediously revealed from the storehouse of knowledge" is considered (p. 465) by Harris R. C. Wilson, director of the Cleveland Mouth Hygiene Association.

ROBERT STERLING YARD, executive secretary of the National Parks Association, who has done so much to bring the nation's playgrounds within reach of the adult-in-search-of-play; and Walter W. Pettit, who as assistant director and head of the community organization department of the New York School of Social Work has made and led in the making of many patient community analyses to discover how recreation and other social forces work in practice, have accepted membership on the Jury of Award for the Second Quarterly Competition under the Harmon Awards. As announced in Survey Graphic for July, prizes of $250, $100 and $50 are offered by the Harmon Foundation through Survey Associates for the best unpublished manuscript on PLAY FOR GROWN-UPS submitted to The Survey on or before September 30, 1926. Full conditions will be found in the July announcement or will be sent on request to anyone interested either as a competitor or as a student of the recreation movement.

THERE could be no nobler monument to Mornay Williams, who died at seventy the other day, than the Children's Village at Dobbs Ferry. There, while the orphanage of the old massed type was still in its heyday, were built homelike cottages for twenty children each, with pleasant family diningrooms and livingrooms, with small dormitories for ten boys each, instead of the so-called cottages for fifty, sixty, or even more boys, or great congregate buildings, which elsewhere contained in some cases dormitories for more than 200 boys. The Village was developed largely by the joint work of Mr. Williams as president of the Board of Trustees, and of Charles D. Hilles as its progressive superintendent. They sought to secure for neglected wayward boys not only the physical conditions but the life and spirit of a normal family. Their example profoundly affected child care throughout the nation.

EXCEPTIONAL pressure of space makes it necessary to omit the Analytical Index from this issue.

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THE SURVEY
MIDMONTHLY

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On Their Way

The Implacable Optimism of the Immigrant Worker

By Niles Carpenter

THE outstanding impression that one gains from inquiry into the attitude of an immigrant group towards its economic relations is its almost implacable optimism. Not that the immigrant is unaware of the difficulties and opposition which he has to encounter; he is quite ready to recount instances of hardship, prejudice, and exploitation that have fallen to the lot of himself or his friends. Nevertheless, he seems equally ready to assert that such adversities as these are more than offset by the advances, both economic and social, that the group to which he belongs is making, and in which he feels that he has a share.

It may be that such an attitude is not justified by the facts, though the writer is inclined to the belief that it squares more nearly with the truth than many observers with their attention fixed on the vicissitudes of individuals or on the squalor of immigrant-occupied neighborhoods would believe. Nevertheless, the attitude itself is a significant phenomenon of immigrant psychology. It helps one to perceive that the readiness with which the immigrant plunges into the uncertainties of American industry and the fortitude with which he endures hardships are, in large measure, born of an abiding assurance that these misfortunes are but incidents in his conquest of a fair share of this country's prosperity and of the opportunities that prosperity brings.

The narratives that follow exemplify this attitude. For the sake of unity, they have been confined to one group, the Italian. They could be duplicated for any of the half-dozen race and nationality groups appearing most prominently in the survey of which they form a part. All of them—Pole, Negro, Jew, Russian, and Syrian—feel quite assured that their own group has within it the capacity to win its way in America, and that, however any one of their group individually may fare, all of them together are decidedly on their way.

Benedetto wouldn't go back to Italy. Yet, Benedetto was homesick for the sun-shine, the warmth, the vineyards, and the heart-solacing wines of his white-walled native village, and life had dealt none too kindly with him in America. In his prime, Benedetto had been a superb specimen of a man. He had gone to work "on the streets," almost from the day he came to town, and he had attained to the grade of asphalt layer, at a wage of $45 per week. But even $45 per week is none too much for the father of a large family, and a pioneer of the city's Italian colony, who is expected to give generously to his less prosperous and more recently arrived countrymen. Besides there was always the winter season, when no paving was to be done, but when money for food and fuel and rent was needed just the same. So, when years and toil at last began to take their toll of Benedetto's strength, he found himself all unready for age.

When the parish priest took the professor to call on Benedetto, he was getting under $20 per week, "watching" fresh-laid asphalt, and was desperately afraid that presently he would be unable to earn even that little. He and his wife had moved into two rooms in a dismal neighborhood, from which they faced the days to come with frightened bewilderment, howbeit with something, too, of the fortitude with which their peasant forebears had faced hardship.

And yet he wouldn't go back to Italy. He was old, and he was poor, and the future was terribly uncertain, but here in America he was a *man* and back in Italy, he would be a peasant. And he wasn't going to be a peasant again!

Painfully rising to his feet Benedetto picked up a hat, set it on his head, snatched it off with a gesture—and stood for a moment the very picture of cowed and brow-beaten servility. And all the while he poured forth a torrent of Anglo-Italian. Thus it was in Italy—one was not a man but a peasant—when one passed a *signore* on the road, one took off his hat, so. When one had to go to the doctor or the lawyer or the *ufficiale,* one stood outside his house, thus, hat in hand. No matter if one was cold or wet or

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shivering with fever, one stood there thus—for an hour, perhaps—until it was convenient that he should be seen.

But here in America, one *was* a man. Why, there had been a time, when he, Benedetto, had gone to see the Big Boss, the president of the construction company for which he had worked these thirty-eight years. A great man, he was, a millionaire! And yet—Benedetto's eyes gleamed in proud reminiscence—the great man had told him to leave his hat on his head, and had shaken his hand, and made him take a chair—him, an Italian laborer, in his working clothes. That was being a man; that was freedom; that was America. And in America he would live and die.

Benedetto's legs suddenly failed him; he collapsed into a chair. As the professor stumbled along the dark hall, he wondered what he would say the next time he came to that point in his lectures where he regularly expounded the proposition that "The southern and eastern European immigrant comes to this country chiefly to improve his economic condition, and has little interest in maintaining the American ideals of democracy and personal independence.

Vincinzo Dislikes "Agitators"

Vincinzo has no use for "agitators." In particular he dislikes the "agitator" who asserts that the Italian laborer does not get a square deal in America. When one of these grievance-bearers turns up among the hundred or more laborers that Vincinzo supervises, he admonishes them, as sternly as his south-Italian temperament permits, to give over their complaining or to look for work elsewhere. For Vincinzo is assured that this country is rich in opportunities, and filled with friendly folk standing ready to help one make the most of them.

Take himself for instance. America began to open the doors of opportunity for him away back in 1889, when he was a raw immigrant boy. First there was the conductor on a suburban train who let Vincinzo shine his shoes in lieu of paying fare. Vincinzo hadn't intended to try to work his passage in this way; he had boarded the train under the impression that it was one of the "belt line" on which newsboys and bootblacks were allowed to ply their trades. But Vincinzo, having instead boarded a local train running to a neighboring town, decided to keep on going, for he knew that his absence would be a relief to his uncle who had a large family of his own. Moreover, Vincinzo remembered that a fellow villager was employed on a construction job in the suburb—and Vincinzo had an idea that his friend might be of use in helping him find work more lucrative than shoe-shining. So when the conductor asked for his fare, Vincinzo, smiling ingratiiatingly, offered to shine his shoes. And the conductor let him, and gave him ten cents besides!

So Vincinzo got his first chance. The friend found him a job wielding a shovel in a labor gang. After a few hours, however, there appeared the foreman, who took the shovel from the boy's bleeding hands, and led him along, weeping from fatigue and from fear lest he was being "fired," to another part of the job, where he was given a task suited to his size and strength. Sundays and holidays he picked up extra nickels and dimes by shining shoes, and while so engaged, he came across the wife of the contractor who controlled the entire operation on which he was employed. She took Vincinzo in hand; bought him clothes to replace the ragged remnants of the peasant costume in which he had left Italy; and saw to it that his leisure was spent under her eye, rather than in the unsavory atmosphere of the construction camp.

With the coming of cold weather, Vincinzo found work in a railroad gravel pit, but revolting from the unspeakable food and quarters provided by the company "boarding boss," sought lodging in the house of a Yankee farmer. He was readily taken in, and spent the winter as a member of the family.

The next summer, Vincinzo came under the eye of a foreman, who, admiring the neatness of his work, made him a "leveler," at ten cents more a day. A year or two later, a division superintendent gave him a permanent berth as a track-walker, a post which he held till the turn of the century, when he was taken from the ranks to become, first an "extra gang" foreman, and finally a full-blown foreman. Today, Vincinzo, at 51 years of ege, is labor supervisor for a large public service corporation.

But just supposing that the conductor on the suburban train had regarded Vincenzo, not as an engagingly audacious and plucky boy, but as a Dago kid who must be bounced from the train. Or just supposing that the Irish foreman, noting Vincinzo's failure to keep up with the rest of his gang, had remarked to himself that these "Eyetalians" couldn't do a man's work anyhow, and had fired him on the spot; or just supposing that the contractor's wife had been so impressed by the abysmal gulf between her own pure-bred Nordicism and Vincinzo's swarthy breed that she had given no second thought to him. Or just supposing, again, that the Yankee farmer's family had been so apprehensive of foreigners that they had repulsed his plea for a home. Or just supposing, finally, that the various railroad foremen and supervisors and superintendents had held strong opinions concerning the place of the "new" immigrant in industry, and the keeping of them in their place. One wonders whether, if any one of all these people had treated Vincinzo, not as if he were merely human, but as the immigrant laborer has—shall we say—an expectancy of being treated, he would have been quite so downright in his condemnation of the "agitator" among his fellow immigrants? Might he not, indeed, have turned out to be something of an "agitator" himself?

Josephine Points with Pride

Josephine talks convincingly. Being a real estate broker, perhaps it is easy for her to do so. Yet there is something more to Josephine's persuasiveness than a professional plausibility. There is no doubt that Josephine knows her people. Herself the daughter of an Italian laborer, she has spent her life among the Italians of the great industrial city in which she was born, and as she has advanced in education and prosperity she has got jobs for them, found homes for them, taken them to the hospitals, interceded for them with officials, written their letters, made out their affidavits, and, more recently, sold them real estate.

And she has sold them all kinds of real estate—cottages, bungalows, one-family houses, stores, and apartment buildings—not only in the so-called Italian quarters but in the newer "sub-divisions" around the periphery of the city. She has prospered not a little in her efforts, for her clients have an infallible aptitude for somehow or other meeting their payments promptly and completely, and then for buying yet more real estate (*Continued on page* 476)

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The Common Welfare

WHILE congressmen and particularly senators are home mending fences there is one gap in the paling that their constituents should not let them forget. That is the inaction of the Senate, during the session which was terminated just before the Fourth of July, on the appropriation for the maternity and infancy work which has made the name Sheppard-Towner so vital a matter in 43 states. Current appropriations lapse with the end of the fiscal year on June 30, 1927. A bill submitted in the House of Representatives extending the authorized appropriation by two years—to June 30, 1929, was passed by the generous vote of 218 to 44 on April 5. It was reported out by the Senate Committee on Education and Labor on May 3 with an amendment cutting the term of the authorization in half. Supporters of the bill refused to accept the amendment and pressed for the passage of the bill as it came from the House. On June 15 the bill came up in the Senate on motion—the friends of the House bill voting for consideration of the measure on that day, and those opposed to any extension as well as those favoring the limiting amendment voting against consideration. On this test vote there were 51 for, 18 against, and 27 not voting. The bill was "talked to death" that day and went back to its place on the calendar. The Senate recessed without further vote or discussion. The bill remains on the calendar and without further action by the House or by the Senate committee can and should be taken up by the Senate when Congress reconvenes in December. The status of the bill, in other words, is not changed by the summer adjournment. There was delay when the first appropriations were made available in 1922 (see The Survey, Feb. 15, 1926, p. 538). There should be no further delay now when the life-saving service of the Act is a matter of widespread experience. Those who believe in the aid which it makes possible for mothers and babies should help congressmen, senators and aspirants for their seats to learn at first-hand during the summer what that service is worth to the home-folks.

CLEVELAND H. DODGE, whose unexpected death occurred a few days ago, was a New York business man who took social work seriously. He felt a genuine and personal concern in its service. His charitable contributions he regarded as investments to be made after careful thought and the consideration of pertinent facts, not simply because of the importunity of friends or the clever appeal of the skilled solicitor. And it was as easy and agreeable to approach him for financial support as it was to meet any friend on any mutual interest. When a well known executive began some expression of apology for suggesting a contribution, he interrupted with a kindly smile: "Never apologize to me for asking for money. You do me a favor by telling me of what you consider important opportunities." It was an unusual experience for the asker.

Mr. Dodge's interests were very inclusive. The Y. M. C. A., education in the Near East, and war and post-war relief in the Near East are the causes with which his name was most frequently connected, but there was no aspect of social welfare in New York which did not share in his thoughtful and discriminating generosity.

It would be interesting to consider how Mr. Dodge, his father, William E. Dodge, and a few other men of that type of an earlier generation arrived at so deep and effective an interest, and such real statesmanship, in the welfare field. The number of such citizens does not seem to be increasing. Is something lacking in education, in the conditions of public life, in religious training? A New York which failed to produce men like Mr. Dodge would be headed in the wrong direction.

THAT tireless traveler, Edward A. Filene of Boston, is busying himself between crossings in a far-flung scheme to double or triple or—who knows how far it may go?—the paltry half million Americans who have booked a passage to Europe this summer. The plan is to persuade American organizations to let their employes take vacations in the spring and fall when both steamers and hotels cut their rates about one-third for dull seasons. A questionnaire to 1,300 national organizations has brought 325 replies to date. One hundred and thirty-four organizations replied that off-season vacations for their employes would be helpful to their business against 43 who felt it would be harmful; 147 of them agreed to cooperate in making off-season vacations possible and 154 agreed to distribute literature to their employes, totaling 29,125 persons. This is only the beginning of it, for there are more than 30,000 member companies, with a great number of employes, among the national organizations which have agreed to cooperate.

Mr. Filene's minimum trip is 16 days at sea and 5 on land for $175. A four-week vacation he figures at $200. Longer trips, at $7 a day. Ocean travel would be in the tourist or student third-class, the recent and increasingly popular plan by which the steamship companies have set aside and polished up half or more of their former steerage space to catch up the slack due to the present immigration law. Mr. Filene, who is now in Europe, expects in the fall to induce the transatlantic lines to increase the number of hotel ships (one-class) in which there are no distinctions of class and the whole boat is open to everybody. On them the expense would be $50 to $100 more.

Primarily this is a plan to make a trip abroad possible for tens of thousands of people of small means or no means. Back of that may be surmised another move in Edward A. Filene's devotion to international understanding and good-

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will—the idea that the more that all of us know about each other the better.

Popular interest in the plan was demonstrated when he recently broadcasted it over WEAF. Such a raft of inquiries came in that he had to multigraph a reply, giving the names of two steamship lines that are ready to book fall passages. Any reader of the Survey who wants a copy may get it of Mr. Filene's secretary, David S. Kennedy at 39 Broadway, New York city. Refer, if you will, to this paragraph.

THE appeal of the American Historical Association for an endowment fund of one million dollars calls attention to the changing character which historical science is assuming in this country. From an old study of individual facts and phases of the past it has come to a realization of its far reaching relation to the present and the future. As the oldest and more pervasive of the social sciences, but intimately bound up with them all, it realizes its function of making human experience available for men who study society and wish to help it. In this newer relation a vast task lies before it. It is nothing less than to promote the understanding and cooperation of a large number of currents running through human actions. It does not lessen the function of the individual scholar, but it co-ordinates his efforts and points out what he should do and how he can best make his work tell in the common service of mankind. The Association that directs this work must be well organized and have a large amount of money at its disposal.

It is interesting to find that among the activities proposed by the historians are the study of the problems arising in our society from immigration and the secondary stages of its development, the conditions produced by the division of our people into great racial sections with varying aspirations and habits of thinking, and the consideration of the historical approach to the legal, economic, and social conditions of the present. Such a program in the hands of competent men would have great significance in our intellectual life. Grants to aid individual scholars to meet the expenses of research are contemplated, as well as the promotion and correlation of historical activities.

THE canny citizen is likely to sniff suspiciously for the pork barrel when he hears of millions to be spent on public works. What is everybody's business is all too likely to be some particular body's gain. It is therefore a special pleasure to note that the huge sum of nearly $16,000,000 recently appropriated by the Board of Estimate for new buildings and repairs to the municipal hospitals of New York city is not a particularly fat political plum, but an authentic social investment, to carry out plans that have been hatching for twenty years or more. To the City Visiting Committee of the State Charities Aid Association and the Public Health Committee of the New York Academy of Medicine must go much credit for their long study of the objects to which these funds will be devoted, and an equally long period of sober public education, which won the intelligent support of the city administration and of the more than a hundred social and civic agencies which joined in the campaign. Bellevue will get its psychopathic and outpatient pavilions, which will complete its general plan and make it an institution to compare proudly with any municipal hospital in the world. Brooklyn and the Bronx will get relief for a population which always has grown faster than the necessary hospital facilities. The Farm Colony on Staten Island will be increased by 500 beds for old people who are not sick, making possible a more constructive and economical classification of the aged poor under the city's care. The hospitals of the Department of Health, for communicable diseases, will get improved facilities to reward their remarkable record of improved care during the past three years and ensure its furtherance. For a number of years, under the pay-as-you-go policy enforced on New York city by the state legislature, new building failed to keep pace with the growth in population. In 1923 that policy was modified to authorize the addition of new wings and buildings to existing hospitals and other city institutions. Each department was invited to list its most imperative needs. The present program is almost identical with the requests endorsed by the State Charities Aid Association two years ago. Financed by a corporate stock issue, it spreads the financial burden of imperative present needs over the generation which will profit by them, and is as sound a piece of social statesmanship as the $50,000,000 bond issue for state institutions put over by Governor Smith.

THERE were thirty-three so-called "crime bills" before the Massachusetts legislature this year. Of these twelve were offered by the registrar of motor vehicles, as a result of his indiscriminate campaign against automobile bandits, district attorneys, courts, probation officers and parole boards. So far as Massachusetts was concerned this great impulse was itself the crime wave; since crime, as such, has been shown to be somewhat on the decrease in the Bay State.

The Legislature listened with great patience. With the registrar it was long suffering. It even voted to add one thousand dollars to his meagre salary; a gesture which would have meant real money had not the governor vetoed it on the ground that this is not the way to increase salaries under a state Budget system.

Some thirty-two of these crime measures were patchwork at best; the majority of them the work of laymen who grieved at the leniency shown to youthful bandits and who assumed that the remedy was to remove discretion from the courts; to abolish probation and parole, and to stiffen penalties. They denied the power to *nol. pros.* a complaint. They even asked that in the trial of a specific offence evidence of previous conviction might be submitted whether charged or not.

The legislature then labored and brought forth ten statutes. Henceforth all offenders holding motor licenses or registration must be reported to the motor registry. And the luckless villain convicted of felony could not, upon conviction of a second felony—including drunken driving, be

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placed on probation or have his case filed. One who stole a car was still better off than a western horse thief in the halcyon days; but he might now get ten years. That species of rogue who makes it a business to give bail and take his chances was discouraged by a declaration that whoso goes bail three times in a year is a professional bondsman and subject to license and regulation. There was a gesture also to reduce the number of old convicts on Massachusetts jury lists.

Among these numerous proposals was one of high origin and sterling worth. It was a special report of the new Judicial Council, made in response to a request of the governor. In it the nine eminent lawyers and judges, who compose that body, called attention to the fact that the average time elapsing between conviction and decision on appealed points of law is more than eleven months in Massachusetts. This, they said, is much too long. "It is not necessary," they added, "to restate the necessity of certainty and celerity in punishments if punishment is to serve as a deterrent to crime. . . . There is no difference of opinion as to the necessity of something being done and done without delay, to bring to an end the defect in the administration of justice in Massachusetts."

To this able report the nine appended a carefully prepared draft of a measure designed to speed up trials, eliminating defects without losing values: to all of which the legislature replied: "No legislation necessary."

ACTING on its conviction that the best way to prevent tuberculosis is to promote good health, the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association recently announced the incorporation in its staff of that of the Associated Out-Patient Clinics of New York. This amalgamation continues the policy which the Association declared when it added "and Health" to its name. Since that time it has broadened its work to promote clinics for heart disease and for dental care. This last step brings into its professional circle the million and a quarter people who attend out-patient clinics each year, a fifth of New York's population and more than four times the number registered annually as patients in New York hospitals. The change is made in the interests of economy of administration and more effective work.

As Michael M. Davis, executive secretary of the Associated Out-patient Clinics, points out, the tremendous development of clinic facilities in New York City is in large part a result of the mounting cost of medical service. Originally intended for the sick poor, clinics and dispensaries used to offer little but a hasty examination by an unpaid physician, and medicines doled out without charge. The development of the specialties in medicine, however, and the cost of new laboratory and diagnostic tests, has so increased the cost of medical care that many families of moderate means, self-supporting under ordinary conditions of health, have been impelled to seek the clinics in times of illness. The greatest part of the clinic work today is the diagnosis and treatment of specialties—diseases of the ear, eye, nose, throat, nervous and mental diseases and orthopedics. The giving of medicine has become a comparatively insignificant part, and increasingly, the clinics are able to see and to help patients in the early stages of physical disorder, and to avoid the more costly hospital care, and the attending loss of wages, which come with physical breakdown. A quarter of New York's physicians serve in these clinics, most of them without pay. Treatment is free or at a fee which does not meet the actual cost.

Does 20 per cent of New York's population need subsidized medical care during a year? No data are available to make a conclusive answer possible, but several interesting considerations are suggested in the report on the cost of private medical care recently summarized in the Long Island Medical Journal on the basis of a study conducted by the Kings County Medical Society with the assistance of the Committee on Dispensary Development of the United Hospital Fund. It is estimated that two-thirds of the families of New York have an income of less than $2,500, and that a family of four or five with this income would have not more than $100 left in a year to pay for the care of health—including doctor, dentist, nurse, medicine, and so on—after the minimum demands for food, shelter, clothing and other essential expenses had been met. Yet the records of fees actually charged by the Brooklyn physicians who replied to questionnaires, indicated that there are many illnesses in which the medical fees alone amount to from $100 to $700, based on a moderate scale. To this must be added the cost of medicines, special diet, perhaps lost wages. A compound fracture or an operation for appendicitis becomes a catastrophe. From the records it becomes clear that in many cases doctors generously reduce their fees in an attempt to meet the circumstances of their patients. Physicians reported instances in which they had refrained from advising expensive examinations and consultations which would aid them professionally (and also the patient) because he could not well afford them. In others they were helplessly aware that a family was paying for medical care at the unwarranted expense of some other necessity, such as food. In some cases which have come to their attention they felt that there was an abuse of free or cheap care in dispensaries. It seems fair to conclude, however, generalizing from this reported evidence that the tremendous use of the clinics is at least partly the result of the dilemma of a large class of self-supporting families, faced in crises with the choice of charity or professional service beyond their means.

The report suggests one answer. "Existing hospital and dispensary facilities should be available to the medical profession for their patients, so safeguarded that the personal relation of doctor and client would not be disturbed, and so conducted that the cost would materially reduce the total expenditure for sickness without the sacrifice of the physicians' fee." Another appears in the organization of the Cornell Pay Clinic, providing medical care at cost to families who cannot meet the prevailing private rates, through a staff of physicians who are adequately paid. There remains a large unknown problem, to be solved only with research and determination. Mere mention of the high cost of illness sends a sobering shudder through any middle-class heart. The situation must appear even more staggering to the student of the social ledger. Can it be met by an adjustment of physician and patient? Is insurance the answer? The admirable studies and experiments of the Committee on Dispensary Development suggest the urgent need for more of each.

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

Bound Out

JOGGING along in an old English legal groove, some of those engaging in the placement of children in foster homes still use as the basis of their contract with foster parents, a form of indenture. This is a survival of the days when slavery and serfdom were tolerated and when children and servants were often lumped together for practical purposes of legal control. While indenture itself is not directly related legally to slavery or serfdom, it does show unmistakeable signs of the company it used to keep and of the atmosphere in which it grew up.

Of late years there has been an attempt to clothe this form of contract with new clauses which mitigate some of its worst features. But its spots are still apt to show through this veiling. An indenture agreement still implies a bargain by which the foster home takes the child because it needs household help or farm labor and not because it is seeking an opportunity to extend education and affection to an unfortunate child. The "bound-out" boy or girl is still in a state of semi-servitude.

In a recently published report, the United States Children's Bureau sets forth its findings on the "welfare" of the children indentured by the Wisconsin state school during the years 1913 to 1917. Field work in looking up the children was done by seven bureau agents between March 15, 1923, and August of that year. They were all trained and experienced social workers.

When in March 1923, the records of the 823 children indentured during the five year period were analyzed, it appeared that 298 of these children had, subsequent to their indenture, been adopted; 268 were still wards of the state; 261 had been released from the guardianship of the school either because they had attained their eighteenth birthdays or had been formally returned to their parents or transferred to the custody of other authorities. Of the children still wards, 224 were chosen for study and of those who had been released, 228 were selected; thus this study covers 452 children indentured at least five years prior to the investigation. The choice of these children was made solely on the basis of geographic convenience and the time available for the study.

Indenture homes in 22 counties were visited. The histories of the children's families were traced and the histories of the children who had been released were brought down to date. A third of the released children were interviewed. Information available through the records and personnel of social agencies, courts, poor law administration, public health nursing staffs, and through the public schools, was collected. The list of the children and their families was checked with the records of state institutions for the delinquent, the physically handicapped and the mentally defective and diseased.

The family status and condition of the indentured children as compared with that of the adopted children show striking differences:

Of the 298 adopted, 139 were the children of unmarried mothers; 72 came from homes maintained by one or both parents; 75, of which 4 were full orphans, were without parental homes although they were legitimate; and in 12 instances there was no information. Among the 452 indentured children, only 27 were illegitimate; 239 came from family homes; 183, of which 9 were full orphans, were without parental homes, and in 3 instances there was no information. Out of the whole group of 750 indentured and adopted children, it was known that only 177 had been born out of wedlock and 13 were full orphans—the two classes commonly thought of as contributing heavily to the dependent child population. The fact that 139 of the 177 illegitimate children were adopted indicates the rapidity and thoroughness with which the adoption homes of the community will absorb the available children. In almost all of these cases the child was surrendered as a baby and adopted at an early age.

Between 1913 and 1923 the 542 indentured children had lived in 768 foster homes, most of which were on farms; 43 per cent of the children had been indentured to more than one home; 27 per cent of the 542 children had remained in the first indenture home less than six months. There was a group of 110 children who at the end of five years or longer were still in their first indenture homes. It is explained by the report that probably this group represents the more successful cases of adjustment in which the children settled down and gave little trouble and the school carried them on its rolls as wards year after year. When the child caused a great deal of trouble or when there had been a series of unfortunate placements there was a tendency for the child to pass out of the jurisdiction of the state school; that is, he either went to some other authority or was returned to his own people.

Of the 540 indenture homes inspected by the bureau agents for various factors such as physical care, schooling and attitude of the foster parents toward the child, 8 per cent were rated as high grade, 44 per cent as satisfactory, and 48 per cent as detrimental. Nothing short of reading the report with all of its statistical and case material will provide an adequate picture of what it can mean to separate a child from his brothers and sisters and to place him on an isolated farm where he is wanted principally for the work he is expected to do. The report also gives facts which show the possibilities for superior child care when good foster homes are used.

While there were some indenture homes which sought to give the child educational opportunities, the report states that "many of the capable children were not allowed to go to high school chiefly because they could not finish before time for their release from the state school's jurisdiction and the foster parents would practically be deprived of the services of the children when they were grown and would thus get very little return on their investment in the child's upbringing." This competition between schooling and services to the indenture home is illustrated in the following cases:

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Martha

The well educated mother in Martha's indenture home declared that she was willing that the girl should have all the education she wished provided she did her work satisfactorily. The home was an attractive bungalow with all modern conveniences, for the W's were well to do. Martha was taken at the age of 14 "to help with the work." She went almost everywhere with the W's in the capacity of a nurse girl.

Martha's school attendance for the one complete school year while in this home was 157 days out of 177. She was tardy 16 times during the year, although she lived very near the school. She was not sent to church or Sunday school, because, the foster mother said, "her mind was distracted from her work enough at school as it was."

According to Mrs. W, the girl dressed the children in the morning, washed the breakfast dishes, did the upstairs work, and often prepared vegetables for dinner before going to school. After school she washed the dinner dishes and helped get supper, and then she washed the supper dishes and sometimes helped with the ironing. On wash days she was sometimes kept home from school to help hang up clothes.

The statement of her teacher in the school record book is as follows: "Martha let out to work by state. Is so overworked before and after school that she does not do as good work as she is capable of doing. Attendance irregular. Tardiness of several hours due to work not unusual."

After a time Martha began to be dissatisfied on account of the work she had to do, and after one year and four months in this home she was returned to the state school.

Bertha

Bertha, less than 12 years of age, was sent to live with a coarse, uneducated couple, whose home was a small five-room house, crudely constructed and with little furniture. Mr. P. admitted that they had taken the child to work because their own children were too small. He said: "I will never take another child unless I can get one young enough, so I can break 'em in to work." The P's attitude was that the child was their property, and they resented the fact that she wrote to her own mother while there. Bertha told the superintendent of the state school the following facts regarding the home. She was kept from school sometimes two or three weeks at a time (the school record confirms this statement); she did a great deal of the housework and helped care for the three young children, prepared breakfast for the family, milked five or six cows every evening, and helped do other farm work. She had received two whippings with a strap and had been cuffed. The child was in this home two years and two months.

The family to whom the girl was indentured at the time of the study had two children of their own, 8 and 4 years of age. Bertha was 17 years of age when the bureau agent saw her, and there was in the home a 17-year old boy paroled from the state industrial school. There was little recreation, as everyone was too busy. The foster parents and the children in the neighborhood were fond of Bertha. She was a willing worker and had a pleasant disposition. She helped with the housework and cooking and did all the work in the absence of the foster mother.

Information was accidentally secured that the foster mother often went to visit her mother for several days at a time, leaving Bertha alone with the foster father and the industrial-school boy, to do the housework and care for the children. At 17 she was a frail-looking girl, quite childish in appearance. She had always disliked school and refused to go for weeks at a time. She was so much older and larger than the other girls of the sixth grade that she was ashamed to go. Between April 1921, and April 1922, she attended school just 82 days, and she stopped the day she was 16 years old. Her school work was reported to be as good as that of the average student.

Flora

Flora, aged 13½, was "considered as a member of the family." She got up early every morning and put up lunch for a young man boarder, prepared breakfast, and did what other work she could before school. At noon she came home and got lunch for the family. After school she sewed and helped with the housework and ended the day by washing, ironing or cleaning. The foster mother said that if Flora would just get up early enough she could also have had all the beds made and the breakfast dishes washed before school.

The foster mother regretted that Flora went to the regular school, for if she had attended vocational school one or two days a week she could have stayed at home and sewed the rest of the time. The child could then have helped her a great deal more and could have learned dressmaking. The foster mother was making her living by dressmaking and had one assistant. She claimed that Flora did not like school because she was large and overgrown and felt awkward and ill at ease there.

Flora, however, declared that she really liked school and wished she could attend more regularly. She found it very hard to keep with her lessons when she missed so much time. Both the truant officer and her teacher complained of her absences and the work the child had to do. The teachers had taken an interest in Flora and helped her make up her work after school. The truant officer could not understand why the child was indentured to this home. He said: "All the woman wants Flora for is to do the work. She has no idea of giving the child a home."

Even good clothes, the movies, and all-day automobile trips on Sunday could not compensate for the drudgery demanded of her.

THIS report abounds in evidence on every point on which honest, careful child placement workers have been hammering for some years: the tragedy of the needless break-up of families in the first place, the drifting back of children to homes no better than when they were removed, the gross evils of careless selection of foster homes, the disasters which attend the failure to maintain continuous and discerning supervision (in Wisconsin there were but two state agents to supervise 500 children scattered on farms throughout the state), the woeful gaps in a program which looks to "free homes" to absorb all sorts of children with all kinds of diverse health and mental conditions and unfortunate experiences, and finally, the futility of expecting any young human being, whatever his state of poverty may be, to repay before he is eighteen or twenty-one years old the cost of a decent and proper raising.

There are persons, of whom the reviewer is one, who get a grim satisfaction from the thought that there is an inexorable law of compensation operating in organized society that forces it to pay somehow for the injuries it allows some people to perpetrate on others. If that is true, and if it is ever thoroughly recognized by the public, it will go a long way toward cleaning up some highly nauseous spots on the social map.

It should be said in defense of Wisconsin that before this report went to press its authorities had informed the Children's Bureau that some improvements had already been made in the care of placed-out children and others were in contemplation. Nor is Wisconsin an isolated example of a state which still retains indenture laws on its statute books. At least eleven other states keep it company. This list includes such populous and seemingly progressive communities as Pennsylvania, Illinois, Michigan, Indiana and Kansas. And lastly, it should not be forgotten that the removal of indenture laws from the statute books is just the first move in clearing the ground for the development of a kind of child-caring service which makes a beginning in putting the chance of the especially unfortunate child on a par with that of the rest of the children of the community.

NEVA R. DEARDORFF

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Children Traveling Alone

PERHAPS you have wondered why children are sent alone upon railroad journeys. Perhaps you picture them leaving a happy sheltering home to pay a visit to a doting relative, or to frolic through a joyous vacation. Fortunately such children do travel, and the Travelers Aid has an opportunity to assist them whether they come in day coach or Pullman. But we have learned that few children who travel alone are coming from or going to a normal home; I venture to say that it is because of some domestic disaster that two-thirds of these little voyagers are on their way.

The weeks between the closing of the schools in June and their opening in September are the great period of child migration. During this time last year in our station in Indianapolis 154 children of from four to sixteen were assisted directly by the Travelers' Aid Society. They came from the Atlantic and the Pacific coasts, from Texas and Florida, from Idaho and Montreal. They came from Kokomo, Gasport, Madison and Muncie, and from places no one but railroad men and mail order clerks ever had heard of. And as they came from all quarters, so they went. Of course 154 passengers form only a tiny trickle of the stream who flow through our station, but one which, followed back to its source, is especially significant in its social implications. Children traveling alone are likely to be dignified, reserved, quick to resent impertinent questions into family affairs. But once a friendly relationship is established and our desire to help understood, they respond with an eagerness which is almost pathetic.

From Child Welfare League of America

A TRAVELER

Divorce is a frequent cause of these juvenile journeyings. Parents live in different cities. Children play between them, small shuttle-cocks weaving a broken pattern in the fabric of love.

HARRY, age five, and Hattie, age seven, live with mother in Indianapolis and visit daddy in Chicago. Mother is working and can't always arrange to place the children on the train. So they are left in our care, but she pays for the telegram which asks the Chicago Travelers Aid to meet them. She says Mr. H. never fails to meet them but she feels safer if she knows the Society is also watching for them.

A twelve-year old boy recently returned to St. Louis where he and his father live. "We bach," he explained. He had been visiting his ex-stepmother and her present husband near Richmond. His own mother lives in Cleveland with his sister. Speaking of the woman he had just left, he said, "She's a real mother to me. I was awful sorry her and pop couldn't get along. Pop's kinda cranky, but say, boy! Bill—that's the man she's got now—he's some fellow."

Sometimes it is violent tragedy which has broken the home; or death may have left a burden too heavy for one parent to carry alone.

We receive a telegram: "Meet Jamie B., four years old, grandmother, Mrs. F., 1067 Blank street." We find she has moved from that address, and no neighbor can be found who knows her present one. Jamie arrives, a hungry, frightened baby. We hold him in the station until 7:30 p. m., hoping the grandmother will appear. Then we place him in the Juvenile Detention Home and shortly thereafter Mrs. F. comes to the station. She had just received a belated message. She was a kind, motherly woman, glad to get Jamie, but bowed with grief because his father, her son, had attempted to take the mother's life. One was in the hospital and one in jail.

On another day we were approached by a solemn group of Negroes who asked what the charges would be for placing a small boy and girl in our care. They were going to Alabama to their grandmother and on the same train with them would be the coffin carrying their father's body. The stepmother, though at the station, was not going with them. The father was the victim of a shooting affray.

A telegram from Chicago asks us to meet Ray, age eight, and put him on traction for Noblesville. Ray tells us his father is dead and his mother is cook in a carnival company. She had tried to keep him with her, but decided that the life was too hard and was sending him to her sister in the country.

Sometimes it is the Travelers' Aid worker who first chances on a family whose plight calls for continuous and skilled help.

Charlotte, thirteen, was discovered after a train from the west had unloaded. She was shabbily dressed, her baggage a small bundle, wrapped in newspaper. She had a ticket for Cincinnati. She told us she was going home to her father and two little brothers of eight and ten. They did not know she was coming but she could find them. What was their address? She guessed it was so and so and if they had gone, she could stay with Mrs. Jones. She was reserved, fearful, withholding something. Here we must work quickly for the Cincinnati train will soon be in and we must know about her before she goes aboard or our chance to help will be gone.

This is the story:

Two weeks ago my mother got mad at my father and told him she was going to move from that old place we lived at. He gave her some money but after he went to work, Jake came along with his wagon and asked her to go away with him. She said she would if he would take us kids but he wouldn't take but just three of us—me and my little sister and the baby. We got right in and drove away. At first I thought it was fun but I got awful tired. We went through Indianapolis last week. I wanted to see papa and the boys, so Jake bought me a ticket home this morning. He and mama and the girls are going to Montana.

All we can do is to notify Cincinnati Travelers Aid to meet Charlotte, interview her and verify her story. They wrote us later that the situation was as she had said and that they had referred the case to the organization that could be most helpful. Until that time the family had been unknown to any organization.

The constant use of such a classification as Children Traveling Alone, which is well known to every Travelers' Aid worker, often dulls (*Continued on page* 476)

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COMMUNITIES

Roomers

Getting under the surface of a city is as thrilling an adventure as a sociologist could have, and when the sociologist tells what he finds in direct and human terms the story is sure to be keenly interesting to all of us. A broadly imaginative study of this sort has been in progress at the University of Chicago for some years under the leadership of Robert E. Park. Here is one fragment from it, by Professor Zorbaugh who is now teaching at Ohio Wesleyan. The Survey hopes to draw further on this rich mine of fact and interpretation

LIKE other areas of the city, the rooming house area tends both to select and characterize its population. The rooming house area, in selecting its population, acts chiefly upon age and economic status—perhaps upon temperamental traits. As a result, the rooming house population represents a diversity of cultural background. And if the dwellers in furnished rooms constitute a social type, they do so largely because the rooming house area is an area of characterization.

The roming house area affords a social situation of a unique sort. As an example, let us take the rooming house area on the Lower North Side of Chicago. An analysis of the Illinois Lodging House Register reveals the fact that there are 1,139 rooming and lodging houses on the Lower North Side, and that in these houses 23,007 people are living in furnished rooms of one kind and another. Ninety blocks in the better rooming area north of Chicago Avenue were studied intensely, by means of a house-to-house census. This study revealed the additional facts that 71 per cent of all the houses in this district take roomers; and that of the people who live in these rooms 52 per cent are single men, 10 per cent are single women, and 38 per cent are couples, "married"—supposedly with the benefit of clergy, though actually 60 per cent of these couples are living together unmarried. The rooming house area is a childless area. Yet most of its population are in the reproductive ages of life, between twenty and thirty-five. The rooming house population is typically what the labor leaders refer to as the "white collar" group—men and women filling various clerical positions—accountants, stenographers, and the like—office workers of various sorts. There are also students from the many music schools of the Lower North Side. Most of them are living on a narrow margin, and here they can live cheaply, near enough to the "Loop" to walk to and from their work if they wish.

The constant comings and goings of its inhabitants are the most striking and significant characteristic of this world of furnished rooms. This whole population turns over every four months. There are always cards in the windows, advertising the fact that rooms are vacant, but these cards rarely have to stay up over a day, as people are constantly walking the streets looking for rooms. The keepers of the rooming houses change almost as rapidly as the roomers themselves. At least half of the keepers of these houses have been at their present addresses six months or less. This extreme mobility results in a startling anonymity, a thwarting of the wishes, and a break down of public opinion.

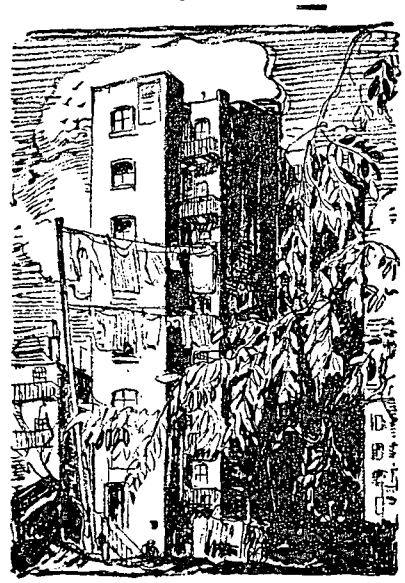
How complete this anonymity may become is illustrated in the following document:

I had occasion to inquire for a man living in a rooming house. He had roomed there about a week. There was no 'phone in the place, so I had to call at his address. I went there about 7:30. After I had rung the bell for some time, a woman about 45 answered the door. She wore a house apron and was evidently the landlady. I asked for Mr. X. She said "Who?" I repeated the name. She shook her head, and said that she didn't know anyone of that name. I looked at the address in my notebook, to see if I had the address correct. I told her that this was the address he had given, and went on to describe him. She knew of two men in the house who might answer to his description. I then told her that he did a lot of work on the typewriter in his room. Then she knew whom I meant. She told me to go to the third floor front and see if he was there. He was not in. I knocked at several other rooms, but no one knew anything about him. When I got downstairs the lady had disappeared, and I could not leave a message.

I came back a week later, and the same woman came to the door. I asked if Mr. X. was in. She said he had moved yesterday. I asked if she knew where he went, but she did not know. She said he left when his week was up. He had left a note for her saying that he had to leave. I asked her if he might not have left a forwarding address for his mail. She said that he did not, that he never got any mail.

In the mobile and anonymous situation the tendency is for no one to know anyone else—as is brought out by the next document:

One gets to know few people in a rooming house. All told, in the year and a half I lived there, I didn't come to know over twenty well enough to speak to them. And there must have been nearly three hundred people in and out in that time—for there are constant comings and goings, some-



Drawn by C. B. Falls for Theodore Dreiser's The Color of a Great City. Boni & Liveright

ROOMERS' VISTA

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one is always moving out, there is always an "ad" in the paper, and a sign in the window. But rooms are never vacant more than a few hours. There seems always to be someone walking the streets looking for a room, and someone is always moving in. People change so fast, and one is in so little—being at work all day, and out every evening as likely as not—that there is little chance to get acquainted if one wished. But one doesn't wish—there is a universal barrier of distrust in the rooming house.

THE rooming house it not to be confused with the old boarding house, where the common diningroom, the landlady's parlor with evenings of euchre and whist, and the piazza with summer evenings of gossip, afforded a nucleus of opinion, and a set of social relationships which afforded satisfaction to the wishes and tended to define social situations. The boarding house has passed out of existence in the modern city: not half a dozen were found in this Lower North Side district. The rooming house which has replaced it is a very different sort of place in which to live. It has no diningroom or parlor, no common meeting place. The roomers do not know one another. The keeper of the house has no personal contact with or interest in the roomers. People come and go without speaking or questioning. Anonymity is well nigh complete.

In this situation of mobility and anonymity the person is isolated. His social contacts are more or less completely cut off. His wishes are thwarted. He finds in the rooming house neither response nor recognition. His physical impulses are curbed. He is restless and he is lonely.

A "charity girl," in an illuminating life history document, exclaims—"There was no one to care! Why should I slave and work, when I might have the things I wanted? And not the least of these was the intimate touch and glance of a man—even if it were only half make-believe; someone to talk intimately with, someone to come home to, someone to ask where you've been; these, too, are things one can't live without." A man who lived in a North Side rooming house wrote: "I found myself totally alone. There were evenings when I went out of my way to buy a paper, or an article at a drug store—just for the sake of talking a few minutes with someone."

He goes on—

Worse, if possible, than the loneliness, was the sex-hunger. I had had a regular and satisfying sex experience with my wife. I began to grow restless without it. I thought of marriage—but the only girls I had met I never would have considered marrying. The constant stimulation of the city began to tell—adding tremendously to this sexual restlessness—lights, well dressed women, billboards advertising shows.

In addition to resulting in a thwarting of the person's wishes, this mobility and anonymity result, of course, in a total collapse of public opinion and social control in the rooming house area.

The emotional tensions of thwarted wishes force the person to act somehow in this situation. His behavior may take one of three directions. He may find himself unable to cope with the situation, and attempt to withdraw from it. This withdrawal frequently takes the form of suicide. There was a bridge over the lagoon in Lincoln Park, in the heart of the North Side rooming house district, which was nicknamed "Suicide Bridge," because of the number of people who threw themselves from it into the lagoon. Because of its sinister reputation the city tore it down. A map of the distribution of suicides on the Lower North Side, shows how frequently this seems the only way out to the persons of the rooming house world.

Or, again, the person may build up an ideal, or dream world, in which are satisfied the wishes that find no realization in the repression of the real world.

There were two girls in a room across the hall who worked as shopgirls in the Loop. They came from some town in Southern Illinois. They weren't good-looking—and, besides, like myself, they had had good homes, so they were lonesome. They used to go often to the movies, and sometimes to a dance, but the celluloid heroes proved more satisfying to these plain but heart-hungry children than did the neglect of the dance hall "sheiks." Other evenings they spent reading True Romance, Experience, The True Story Magazine, and other such magazines devoted to stories of the adventures of girls in the city. One of them kept an intermittent diary, filled with stories—fictitious, I always was sure—of street flirtations and adventure. We used to spend evenings writing letters to Doris Blake (editor of Advice to the Lovelorn in the Chicago Tribune), asking what a young girl should do if a man she liked but didn't love tried to kiss her. It was all a make-believe, a peopling our workaday world with adventure and heroes.

Or perhaps a substitution is made, and the person finds satisfaction for his thwarted wishes in symbols which represent old associations—or pours out his affection on a dog or other pet:

She lavished attention on the parrot. She bought it the best cage she could find, cared for it according to the best parrot lore, and returned home after work to give it food and exercise. It ate its supper with her, perched outside on a basket handle, being fed now and then from her spoon. In the morning it flew to the side of the cage to greet her, and talked to her while she dressed. When she came home after work she was hailed with joy; if she lay down to rest a while and moaned with weariness, the parrot made sad, sympathetic sounds. Anyone with whom it was left was asked to say certain words or greeting to it morning and night. It was her child. She sacrificed herself for it. "You can't imagine," she would say, "what it means to have Polly in my room—it makes all the difference. . . ."

There are thirty-seven things on the wall—mostly pictures, among them a photograph of her father's old stone house, the picture showing the country in which she had lived; a cheap print of a child in its nightgown descending the stairs; a colored print of a man and woman sitting in the firelight; some family pictures. There is a newspaper cartoon of a homeless man on Thanksgiving Day, shabby and alone at a cheap restaurant, seeing a vision of a pleasant family group about a generously laden table. There are thirty-nine articles on the bureau, two small stands, and a melodeon—including a tiny doll and a tiny cradle. I have urged her to cast away nine-tenths of these things, in the interest of her time budget, to make cleaning simpler. "I have to have these things," she responds, "you have your home and family and friends and leisure and everything—you can't possibly understand." She plays hymns and the old songs of the countryside on the melodeon. The parrot tries to sing after her.

This clinging to objects symbolic of old associations often amounts, among dwellers in furnished rooms, to a sort of fetishism.

More frequently, though, the person accommodates himself to the life of the rooming house world by an individuation of behavior. Old associations and ties are cut. Under the strain of isolation, with no group associations or public opinion to hold one, living in complete anonymity, old standards disintegrate, and life is reduced to a more nearly individual basis. The person has to live—and comes to live in ways strange to the conventional world.

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I get along fairly well, now. I am no longer lonely. I am surprised to find that I can actually enjoy the girls I pick up at public dance halls, at restaurants, along the lake front, in the park. I know a great many of them now—many of them pretty and clever, and good companions for a night. I no longer go with prostitutes. I soon found that was unnecessary. For the city is full of women who are just as lonely as I was, or who draw on their sex as I would on my bank to pay for the kind of clothes they want to wear, and the kind of shows they want to see. Then, too, there are the "emancipated" women, who don't want to marry, who are not gold diggers, but who feel the need of a sex life.

The person tends to act without reference to social definition. Behavior is individualized—impulsive rather than social.

Such is the social situation to which the dweller in furnished rooms is attempting to adjust. Such are three typical constellations of attitudes and personality patterns that arise as the person attempts to adjust to this social situation. It is not contended that these constellations of attitudes and personality patterns constitute—in the instance of the dwellers in furnished rooms—the criteria of well defined social types. But if these forms of behavior are found in other social situations, nevertheless they are typical reactions to the world of furnished rooms, and illustrate the process in which social types are defined.

HARVEY ZORBAUGH

A Negro Girl and a Y.W.C.A.

Under the title All Colors, the Commission on Race Relations of The Inquiry recently assembled and organized with great ingenuity for discussion groups a mass of material dealing with race relations in school and college, business and industry, and the larger community. Here one of the more extended records of experience, which forms an appendix of the study, is cited in full

THE following account may be useful for three reasons: It shows how a consistent following up of agreements reached through group study of race relations may affect the thought and activities of an important organization. It indicates the stages of conference and experiment through which a conviction may be carried into action with common consent. And it illustrates the part which, on occasion, a resourceful and patient colored woman may play in helping to create a better understanding of the practical problems faced by her group and to open for it new doors of opportunity.

Early in the fall of the year, a Negro girl was excluded from the sewing-class in one of the branches of the Young Women's Christian Association in a large northern city. This is how it happened: The teacher, on receiving the application of the colored girl, asked her before registering her to talk the matter over with the general secretary of the branch. Why, she did not say; but the girl concluded that she was not desired in the class and immediately left the building. She gave others in the Negro community the impression that there had been a definite exclusion from this institution on account of race. There were at that time two colored girls enrolled in the Association's activities for school girls, and at one time some colored women had been members of a class for recreation leaders.

This would have been the end of the matter at any time during the previous few years. But, as it happened, only a few weeks ago members of this Association, with others, had attended a summer conference for industrial girls where the relations between white and colored women had been under discussion. A number of Negro girls from other cities had been in attendance, and among other things there had been talk of the participation of colored girls in Y.W.C.A. work. The same subject also had been discussed that summer at a week-end conference of business girls where plans were made for a further study of the subject of relations between the two races.

There was therefore a background of interest when the incident concerning the colored girl's application for membership in the sewing-class became known. The membership secretary of the branch in which the girl had applied, before knowing of her withdrawal, submitted the application to the general secretary of the Association and asked what she was expected to do in such a case. The teacher who had interviewed the girl, on being asked, said that it had been her understanding of the Association's policy that no Negro girl was allowed in any of its activities. An examination of the records showed, however, that this never had been the stated policy. On the other hand it was clear that very little had been done at any time to make known this fact and to encourage the participation of colored women in the work of the Association. There had been "difficult" situations of uncertainty before which had been smoothed over; yet nothing had been done to create a more definite policy. In the case under review, the teacher thought the white women in her class would not meet with this colored girl; she was willing herself, however, to teach a group of colored girls if enough cared to join such a group.

At this point, the general secretary of the Association sent for a Negro social worker in the city for whom she had great respect, to consult with her as to possible forms of action. Her own opinion was that, with the prevailing feeling, the organization of a separate class for colored girls was the only thing that could be done to meet the demand of the colored applicant for lessons in dress-making. This, she thought, might be the first step in a more considered plan for the future, as regards both the promotion of a better understanding between the races and a more real participation of both races in the Association's activities.

The Negro social worker's first request was that the girl who had considered herself excluded be brought back for a talk with the general secretary, so that she might learn that the Association did not, as a matter of policy, discriminate against her race and was, in fact, considering a more satisfactory course of procedure. This was done, but the colored girl said she would not now join any class whatsoever—and decidedly not the proposed "Jim Crow class"; in fact, she did not now wish to be considered a candidate for membership. Before the interview was over, she did, however, realize that, even though she was not willing to help, a new situation might develop in the Association; and she left with a less embittered feeling.

The colored social worker also agreed to meet with four or five of the secretaries to discuss the whole program of the

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Conflicts Wanted

HOW do communities behave when parts of the community disagree?

The Inquiry, through a newly organized division for community study, proposes to collect by correspondence and field investigation enough answers to this question in terms of concrete local experience to make a book out of them for the use of study and discussion groups. Survey readers are invited to contribute their own samples of conflict, either in the form of first-hand records of situations showing group conflict, whether settled or unsettled, or in the form of suggestions to The Inquiry of local conflicts that deserve field study by The Inquiry's staff and local "participant observers."

"Among the types of social conflict arising in local communities and presenting a community problem," The Inquiry explains, "are those having to do with racial segregation, control of dance halls, the question of Sunday movies, establishment of a public playground, the location of a new schoolhouse, a centralized budget for local charities, the organization of another church, industrial disputes and partisan political squabbles."

Case-stories and suggestions alike should be sent to Raymond G. Fuller, Secretary for Community Study, The Inquiry, 129 East 52d Street, New York.

Association in its relation to the Negro women of the city. It was agreed that any new policy must rest on a more intimate knowledge of the situation than that which the present members and officers of the Association had. It was agreed also that full admission of the colored people to the privileges of the Association could not be said to exist until conscious and intelligent effort had been made to render the work of the Association of value to the colored people of the community at least to the same extent to which it had been made of value to its many foreign-born groups. And, of course, the policies would have to be so clear that personal interpretations on the part of individuals in the Association, unfavorable to colored applicants or members, would be impossible in the future. The following plan was formulated:

1. That the discussion groups of members give time to further study of the history of the Negro people and of the relations between the two races in America.

2. That talks be given to as many groups in the Association as possible by colored speakers of the city—especially concerning the history of the Negroes in the community.

3. That there be exchange visits, where these promised to be helpful, between groups of white Association members and groups of colored girls in churches and other organizations.

4. That various committees and governing bodies of the Association discuss further practical plans for recognizing the responsibilities of the Association to the Negroes in the community.

This question was subsequently brought before many groups and committees. Colored women of the community were invited to address some of these meetings; and the social worker previously mentioned met with several committees to discuss informally the wisdom of the further participation of colored women in the various activities. The committee of management of the branch in which the incident of virtual exclusion had arisen, discussed this particular situation and possible ways of avoiding similar occurrences in the future. In all these discussions, the Negro social worker not only gave much of her time but genuinely tried to understand the fears of some of the white people and patiently to set right obvious misunderstandings.

One result of facing the problem in this frank manner was a recommendation from the committee just mentioned to the board of directors of the whole Association that in future no line of discrimination be drawn against the Negro women and girls of the city. This was adopted by the board, and the whole Association set about the task of making more real the participation of both races.

Again the Negro social worker met with different secretaries at their request and helped them plan activities in which Negro girls would not only be beneficiaries but also might have contributions to make. Here are some of the incidental outcomes:

Colored girls applying for admission to the educational classes were admitted without question.

When a speaker of interest to girls in industry came to the city and a special gathering was held, a point was made of inviting Negro girls in industry who were known to the social worker.

Several colored girls who had expressed a desire to study methods of leadership in group activities were invited to join such a class held for business girls.

Groups of colored girls began to form both in the Girl Reserve and industrial departments, meeting—as did all the groups in these departments—in the sections where the girls lived.

The following summer, colored school girls went to the Association camp with white school girls. They had never been invited to use the camp before.

A colored woman was elected to the board of directors of the Association.

One week-end conference of white members, after discussing the basis of their race prejudices and recognizing the social causes of their disinclination to work with colored girls, sent a recommendation to the board of directors asking that the Association lead the way in giving the Negro women of the city fair opportunities of employment—more specifically, by appointing on the stenographic staff of the Association a competent colored girl as soon as an opening should occur.

Of course, difficulties of procedure did not suddenly cease. Whenever they arose, the colored social worker gave willingly of her time and thought to the planning of methods which would solve these problems in such a way as to increase mutual understanding between the two racial groups and to promote the growth of intelligent participation by the Negro group.

THE IDEA that long-haul rapid transit travel is not always a beneficent addition to a city's resources but may become a definite liability is finding more and more frequent expression. In a recent issue of City Planning, Frederick Law Olmsted winds up an article on Rapid Transit and Social Values with the interesting assertion (radical enough in the face of public policy in New York, for instance) that "It is highly desirable, so far as it is practicable in the development of such a system, to work away from the idea of a uniform rapid transit fare at less than cost in the direction of a system of zone fares approximating in rates what would meet the actual cost of providing the service and delimited as to zone lines with thoughtful regard to the effect of the economic burden which the fares impose toward *checking* rather than *subsidizing* socially unfruitful transportation."

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HEALTH

Dentistry: Going to the Roots

FROM 1890 to 1900 dental schools, both the commercial ones and those loosely associated with institutions of higher learning, were obliged to meet all their expenses out of the current income from students and clinical service. Schools were seeking students in ever greater numbers with the lure of unusual earning power together with a certain social position (which only rarely existed) and independence as to one's time and the direction of one's energy. The leaders of the dental world were constantly trying to raise the educational standards of the schools both in the fundamental sciences, such as anatomy, physiology, chemistry and physics, and the applied subjects. This involved an ever increasing cost to the "proprietor" who acted consistently as a brake upon too much advance, while the student body, then as now, looked upon the fundamental sciences as a burden to be carried because the school required a passing grade in these subjects for graduation. Few students can see a direct, money-earning value in anatomy or physiology.

To the majority who have chosen dentistry as a profession the subjects that entail manual dexterity are the most attractive. A dentist was trained in the manipulation of metals. He could make steel instruments if need be. He could solder any metal. He could cast metals in the finest of patterns. He had acquired a most delicate sense of touch and could feel, with the tiniest wire, his way into a root of a tooth. Not a few of our dentists have been and are expert sculptors, painters and the like. Such men, whose fathers have often been skilled trades people, can find much enjoyment in the making of beautiful delicate jewelry as well as in making the more useful and practical restorations for the mouth.

In the last decade of the nineteenth century and the first decade of the twentieth century almost innumerable methods and plans were produced by dentists for making intricate, exact and unique restorations for portions of a tooth as well as for restorations of one or more teeth. Great stress was placed on the more thorough and careful technique of cleaning, sterilizing, and preparing of the minute internal structure of the teeth. Elaborate pains were taken to provide aseptic instruments and materials to operate upon a field simply teaming with pathological organisms. During these years certain of the dental fraternity were constantly reminding us of the minute structure of the teeth and adjacent tissues, but the seed of biological ideas fell largely upon unfertile soil. Dentists used to feel that teeth were things apart from the anatomy. They seemed to respond to drugs, and due to nature's kindness and adaptability the patient did not suffer pain except at intervals during operations and perhaps periodically thereafter. Nature often tried to eliminate a whole tooth rather painlessly. Dentists have always been urged to "record," as do the members of the medical fraternity, their case experiences and results. The literature is replete with reports of cures of various diseases following the extraction of teeth. Astonishing improvement in health was noted following the removal of pathological conditions of the mouth. Some were inclined to believe and to lead others to believe there was a correlation in these cases, but many felt it a coincidence. When instruments failed—and there is a limit to the extent of their use—dentists tried the limited amount of chemistry and pharmacology which they had been taught. We felt that careful technic, asepsis as we learned it by copying the practice of the great medical surgeons, would make our work perfectly safe for the people.

Now and then warnings were sounded against the practices of American dentistry, but these were taken with little concern as no chain of logical facts had been presented to correlate cause with effect. Criticism was not justified, for had we not exercised the greatest skill ever known to man, and produced a lasting benefit to humanity by making it possible for people to retain their defective (diseased) teeth in comparative comfort (most of the time)?

IN 1909, Dr. William Hunter of London, England, delivered an address to the graduating class of medical students at McGill University, Montreal, in which he rather vehemently condemned septic American dentistry as a cause for certain serious systemic diseases more or less common in all medical practices. This was an affront to the American dental profession; it was immediately met with caustic replies; honest and in full confidence that we were not guilty of any improper practices, but on the contrary were rendering a service that was a blessing to society.

Fortunately, there were those who had thought a little more carefully and recognized the possibility of a truth in these statements from Dr. Hunter's experiences. Several members of the dental and medical professions set about to learn the truth. Laboratory experiments and studies with animals brought to light the fact that Dr. Hunter knew only the elements of the real situation. Infected teeth were associated definitely with many degenerative systemic diseases. It was observed that these diseases were on the increase.

The appalling prevalence of dental disease among all civilized people was attracting world wide attention. Resourceful minds sought the reason. The world had developed many foods artificially prepared, more attractive in form and incidentally better suited to the conditions required by the commercial interests in large communities. It was realized that these foods were so prepared that chewing was not required in any such degree as previously. Excelsior! the remedy had been found. Chew your food. Chew everything. Use foods that are hard to chew. Exercise the teeth. We chewed and chewed and chewed until nothing but liquid was left in the mouth, but teeth continued to decay.

In 1910, of 21,000 children six to sixteen years of age, 97 per cent exhibited decay of teeth in some degree. Some one said—"Chewing is good, but we must keep our teeth

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clean." The unswallowed bits of carbohydrate food remain about the teeth and ferment, causing decay. Like a drowning man we saw another straw; it seemed to be a life saver and we grasped at it with all the vigor we had pursued earlier phantoms. We said brush the teeth up and down, brush across, brush in a circular motion five times a day. It was claimed "Clean teeth do not decay." We created a whole new profession "dental hygienists" on the assumption that clean teeth do not decay; but after some years of experience we realize that clean teeth, that is, teeth as clean as we know how to keep them, do decay. We tried alkaline tooth pastes and powders without avail. We then tried acid preparations with like results. Experiments everywhere. Hopes of a millennium sprang up only to be shattered by a brief span of time.

DURING all these years it was observed and recorded in literature that the teeth of certain individuals seemed immune, so to speak, to decay. Some of these persons chewed their food, some did not. Some cleaned their teeth, and some did not. Some chewed tobacco, some smoked; others abstained. Some were immune under certain physiological conditions and at other times the immunity lapsed. Why? Some said we inherited teeth that did not decay; some said that the saliva contained elements that controlled decay. Certain observers have noted groups of people almost free from dental decay and have carefully recorded their diet and habits of living. The evidence at hand points to two factors as the dominant or controlling elements: First, the quality of the tooth structure as laid down when the organ is developing; and second the nutrition of the organ throughout life.

It has been observed that many teeth begin to decay rather promptly after eruption into the mouth. If we examine teeth immediately after eruption we find a difference in the formation of the enamel structure. If we make thorough study of the period during which the tooth is assuming its form, we realize that there is a correlation with normal or abnormal metabolism that we have reason to believe is a dominant if not a controlling factor determining the quality of tooth structure.

Heredity will largely determine the number of teeth, the number of cusps and their relation to each other. Environment may alter the shape of the cusps and the presence or lack of mineral salts as a basis with which nature may build the teeth. The environment determines whether or not there are present those properties which promote an uninterrupted metabolism (vitamines, we call these factors in 1926). This newer view gives promise of being fundamentally sound.

We believe we have extracted a few of the hidden facts of nature relative to nutrition. Biology is teaching us the reactions between sunlight and vegetable metabolism. Biology has taught us the relation of human metabolism and growth when various types of diet are employed. Light has been analyzed and correlated with the functions of organic life. We are learning that inherited characteristics are factors to be considered along with environment. Both must be understood and applied.

The dental profession has been profoundly impressed by the unveiling of nature's truths and an earnest effort is being made to adapt dental practice to the scientific truths of the day. The dental schools are increasing the educational requirements for entrance and are adding materially to the curriculum. Dental schools are fast becoming real units of great universities. Only twenty years ago two years of high school and three years of dental college would enable a man to practice dentistry in Ohio and other states; while today one year of collegiate work is required for entrance and four additional years of college work, technical and academic, are required for graduation. Thereafter a state board of dental examiners passes upon the qualifications of the candidates. The tendency of state boards today is to hold a wholesomely stiff rein to prevent incompetents from imposing upon the public. The state board of dental examiners can and does determine the competency of candidates to practice, though it cannot control the methods of practice an individual may adopt after being granted a license to practice. It is interesting to note that the graduates of the past seven years are taking a distinctly scientific viewpoint toward the practice of their profession. The next decade probably will see an almost complete eradication of the earlier empirical ideas.

With this growth of knowledge a portion of the profession has turned its attention toward the prevention of dental disease by the popularizing of the various panaceas. While no one believes we yet know all the biological secrets we are of the opinion that we have discovered some of the factors that will contribute to the lessened prevalence of dental caries or decay. One thing at least is certain: a very high percentage of children born and raised in cities today have dental caries which, uncared for, will rapidly lead to the loss of the individual teeth and to systemic degenerative diseases. The one conspicuous corroborating fact in our present knowledge is that the colored children born and reared in the country districts of the South present a distinctly favorable condition and show a high percentage of mouths free from decay. When their habits of life are studied the cause seems apparent—sunlight. Recent discoveries lead us to feel that we may all become sun worshippers, as we realize more fully the all-important part the sun plays in all life processes.

The dental profession is so constituted and organized, or rather unorganized, that it is unable to cope with the problem of dental caries in children. The only institution that can meet and solve the problem of dental caries in the mouth of the school child is the body that the people have created to provide another common need—the prevention of illiteracy. The boards of education must assume, at least for the present, the responsibility of preventing physical degeneration due to a civilization which means living in great industrial centers on unnatural foods in unnatural surroundings, in an atmosphere of smoke; in houses and factories and streets, screened from the life-giving sunshine. We must meet the conditions produced by artificial environment with man-made methods of defence or accept the inevitable alternative—destruction.

We cannot combat these conditions with preaching alone. We must practice, demonstrate. True, we must broadcast the truths as we learn them. But let us not give out anything more as a truth until we are sure about it. We are pretty safe in saying that milk is a proper food for a growing mammal, for nature has thus supported the life of mammals, so here again we are safe. Beyond this let us not be too sure about diet. The bio-chemists and other scientific workers are testing and retesting everything we eat and do; so one day in the future we (*Continued on page* 475)

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INDUSTRY

Unionizing College Window Washers

AFTER several months of negotiations twelve students, working their way through the University of Denver by washing windows, have recognized their kinship with organized labor and joined the labor union, not individually, but as students. The contract, signed by representatives of the Student Window Cleaners of the University of Denver and of the Building Service Employes Union, Local 29, represents a compromise between the union and the student group. It protects "professional" window cleaners against wage undercutting by student amateurs, and it carries out the policy of the university of promoting harmony between capital and labor, of giving college training to future labor leaders and of training college students to see both sides of controversies between capital and labor.

The champion window cleaner of New York city scorns the safety belt. Working unharnessed is a point of pride with him. So far, he says, his foot has never slipped— seriously. But in Denver the employes of the Student Window Cleaners swing over the city streets, trussed and harnessed like the look-out on a whaler. The Student Window Cleaners were organized in 1915 by Clarence and Walter Rose, then working their way through the University of Colorado at Boulder. In eleven years, branches have been formed at a dozen colleges and universities in Colorado, Texas, Kansas and Oklahoma. The Rose brothers, who still "own" the Student Window Cleaners, have made a motion study of window cleaning, and they have taught college students to wash windows safely and also scientifically, with new tools which they have invented to speed up the process.

The Building Service Employees' International Union Number 29, with a membership of thirty or forty journeymen, complained against the Student Window Cleaners. The Building Trades Council carried an objection to the chancellor of Denver University, stating that students, in working for a non-union firm, were keeping married men out of jobs. The chancellor replied that the university had been proud to say that any ambitious young man could study in its classrooms, and that to insure that it was necessary to keep open every avenue for student labor; but that the university wished justice for both employers and employes.

At the time Clarence and Walter Rose were paying their student help by the hour on a sliding scale which earned for the beginner a minimum of thirty cents and rose to seventy cents or a dollar an hour as the speed of the student increased. This was reckoned on the gross income from the hour's job, the percentage of income to the worker decreasing as the hourly wage increased.

The students found this arrangement quite satisfactory. The chance to increase their earning power to as much as a dollar an hour appealed strongly to undergraduates who usually received only the wages of unskilled labor. Further, if one got on the job at six, splashed his windows accurately and wiped them scientifically, he could earn from two to three and a half dollars before his ten o'clock class. The short, irregular hours increased the job's attractiveness for students.

Other window cleaning firms of the city were paying the union's flat hour rate to their employes. The prevailing journeymen wage in Denver was sixty-eight and a half cents. Apprentices were few, since the industry was slightly oversupplied with trained men; and these few learners were paid at varying rates.

Here was a conflict of two theories of wage-payment. The young, ambitious students were happy to be paid upon their earning power and grew richer proportionately as they became more valuable to their employers. The union members insisted upon the hour-rate.

A MINISTER, an economic professor, the student secretary of the Y. M. C. A., and the editor of a labor paper brought the contending parties into conference. A union-employing hotel was selected as a luncheon place; two student window cleaners, their employers—the Rose brothers—and the business agent, secretary and president of the window cleaners' local sat down at a table together. The business agent jibed one of the students about a football catastrophe of the previous Saturday. The other student asked the secretary of the union if he had been on an outside job the day of the ice storm.

The complaint of the union members was that the student thirty-cent rate for beginners allowed under-cutting in bids. Also, the word "student" had an unfair appeal for business. The Roses pointed out their efficiency devices and the courtesy and neatness of their workers. A seventy-five cents an hour worker, they said, was more profitable than a thirty-cent beginner; for the former was probably earning a dollar and a half an hour for the company, and the latter was being paid to learn the process.

But, in spite of the efficiency arguments and the reasonableness of the sliding scale for students learning their trade, the question remained: "How protect the union men?" If jobs went to students, union men would go without.

The Rose brothers consented immediately to scrap their complicated sliding scale, always displeasing to unions, and to pay the regular union wage to experienced students, remarking that there could be no objection to a bonus for work better than average. Why not, then, let the students take out union membership cards and close the incident?

But one clause in the union contract with employers complicated the problem. "No employer is to hire an apprentice as long as there is a competent union man available." The Roses balked at this. Their business was for students and with them. The unity and future of their organization lay in training student workers. When, next fall, they were ready to take on four or five freshmen to fill the places of June graduates, doubtless a veteran window-cleaner or two

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New Pamphlets

THE MOVEMENT OF REAL WAGES AND ITS ECONOMIC SIGNIFICANCE, *by Paul H. Douglas. The American Economic Association. Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill. (reprinted from the American Economic Review).*

A careful study of the comparative movements of wages and cost of living in this country from 1895 to 1924.

WOMEN IN ILLINOIS INDUSTRIES, Bulletin of the Woman's Bureau No. 51. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

This study is based on a survey of 429 establishments, employing a total of 142,745 workers in thirty-one manufacturing industries, in stores, laundries, hotels and restaurants. The study covers the nativity, age, conjugal condition and living conditions of the workers, hours of work, general plant conditions, sanitation, service equipment, and overtime and unemployment.

ENFORCEMENT OF THE CHILD LABOR LAW IN KENTUCKY, *by Charles E. Gibbons. National Child Labor Committee, 215 Fourth Ave., New York.*

A study made in 1925 of the application of the Kentucky child labor law and of the kinds of work children without permits were found doing.

TWENTY YEARS OF SOCIAL PIONEERING. *The League for Industrial Democracy, 70 Fifth Avenue, New York. Price, 15 cents.*

A review of the activities of the League for Industrial Democracy and the Intercollegiate Socialist Society, its parent, with a foreword by Norman Thomas, and the addresses and greetings given at the twentieth anniversary celebration of the organization last winter.

HEALTH HAZARDS IN BRASS FOUNDRIES, *by John Arthur Turner, Ph.G., M.D. and L. R. Thompson, prepared at the direction of the Surgeon General. Public Health Bulletin No. 157. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. Price, 20 cents.*

"Exposure to dust; inadequate illumination and glare; inadequate ventilation; the presence of fumes, gases, smoke, heat, cold, dampness; and in some instances inadequate personal service facilities" were found to be the chief health hazards of workers in brass foundries. The study is unusually well illustrated by charts, photographs and drawings.

STEPS TO NEBRASKA FARM OWNERSHIP, *by J. O. Rankin. College of Agriculture, Lincoln, Nebraska.*

A survey of land tenure, including farm ownership, tenancy and farm labor, in a state still predominantly agricultural.

THE TEXTILE STRIKE OF 1926. *General Relief Committee, Textile Strikers, 743 Main Avenue, Passaic, N. J.*

Here is the strike story—working conditions, demands, leadership, the progress of events—presented from the workers' point of view.

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING BY ACTORS, *by Paul Fleming Gemmill, Ph.D.. Bulletin of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, No. 402. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, D. C. Price, 15 cents.*

The background and history of the Actors' Equity Association, the Chorus Equity Association and the Hebrew Actors' Union and the effects upon the theatre of trade unionism among actors, is interestingly told by an assistant professor of economics at the Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania.

Requests for these pamphlets should be addressed to the organizations named. Except where the price is named all are for free distribution.

would be jobless and demand work. The contract required that these journeymen be employed first. Such men are good workmen, said the Roses, but they are old dogs and consider themselves too wise to learn new efficiency tricks. The company was built up by students and would grow best by the exclusive use of student labor.

The arbiters attempted to find where the right to clean windows lay. Had the students a right as students? Had workers, who apparently were in the trade for life, any priority over students?

It was finally agreed that students have a right to compete on an equal footing with the rest of the trade. Also it was apparent that the competition would become bitter if it continued unregulated.

The union stuck at another point. Apprentices must be paid a high wage to start. Fifty cents was their minimum. Some members asked for fifty-five. But the Roses protested that they always lost money on their beginners. How could they afford to pay them more? The union members countered that the whole discussion was pointless, because the regular contract, requiring the employer to hire a journeyman before an apprentice, had to stand. If they made an exception for the students all the other employers would clamor for special privileges. This stage of the debate was arrived at in about the sixth meeting. It was early Sunday afternoon in the deserted office of the labor paper; and the young secretary of Local 29 had a date. The business agent had grown rather testy. The patience of the Roses, upon whom the unions had no real claim, was obviously strained.

"Why not give the industry what it so obviously needs?" suggested the professor. "Let's study the situation and fix a wage scale for apprentices based upon the real earning power of a learner. There is no need of revising the universal contract between the local and the employers. Draw up a separate agreement, recognize the principle of protecting the present journeymen, and let an arbitration committee with absolute power make a study of the cost of window cleaning by apprentices and set the scale."

The two theories of wage-payment would thus be merged. The apprentices would be paid upon their actual value, discovered by a study of the cost of training them. The journeymen, however, would be continued at their union, hourly rate and spared the speed-up effects of piece work.

For the students this was satisfactory, because the prospects of increasing their earning power was held out to them in the shape of bonuses above sixty-eight and a half cents.

The Rose brothers wondered if they could get a square deal out of an arbitration committee with power. The editor began telling the plot of the play he had seen the night before, and the "Y" secretary told a joke. Hurriedly the professor scribbled off an agreement to arbitrate and interupted the editor's second story to read it and hear the employers' criticism. The addition of a sentence as a stenographer in the next room swiftly ticked off carbon copies put the document into final shape: and the union secretary was interrupted in the middle of his story to hear the professor's last suggestion. Nobody objected, and everybody signed. The scab student organization had recognized the trade.

The sequel to the story has begun to make itself felt. Members of the economics department of the university studied the accounts of the Student Window Cleaners in order to discover just how much a learner is worth to his boss. The union agreed to the final proposal of an apprenticeship rate of fifty cents an hour, during an apprenticeship of eight hundred hours. Students are finding that the original suspicion with which their new brothers in Local Number 29 accepted them into their councils is gradually, very gradually dissolving. Who knows? These twelve fellows may be the nucleus of intelligent progressiveness in a static union. The workers' education movement is taking labor to college; possibly this will help bring the college to labor.

GORDON K. CHALMERS

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BOOKS IN OUR ALCOVE

Second Thoughts on Crime

THE "crime wave" caught us with dropping jaw and open mouth. We spluttered and choked, and then we began to talk a bit wildly about it. We were "battling the criminal." A glance at the titles of some of the new books on crime suggests a change of mood: Professor Barnes, a sociologist, writes on The Repression of Crime—and his book is really not at all about "repression"; Dr. Platt writes of The Riddle of Society, merging the problem in the larger complex where it belongs; and a Pennsylvania prison superintendent, Mr. Stutsman, writes on Curing the Criminal. Sober second thoughts are coming into consciousness; one hopes that the focus of public interest has not so completely shifted to the more specialized criminal problems of wholesale politics and prohibition that these second thoughts will fail of a hearing.

Perhaps the one greatest need in this subject at the moment is for a simple, reasonable, convincing statement of the new concepts of crime and its relation to "normal" behavior, and of its treatment in the light of contemporary medical and psychological knowledge. Each of these three books is a contribution toward that end, but none of them, to my mind, quite reaches it.

Professor Barnes has described his book in part by choosing as his subtitle, Studies in Historical Penology. The publishers have not at all described it by calling it on the jacket A Scientific Explanation of the Crime Wave. It is not that and makes no pretense to be. It is a hastily compiled and repetitious jumble of historical papers (dealing largely with the early service of the Quakers and of the Elmira Reformatory) and expositions of the "new criminal science." The author is over-pontifical in his general articles, and probably states the case for the psychiatrist more sweepingly than a well-balanced psychiatrist would state it for himself. And it seems needlessly final to assert that "there is not the slightest iota of freedom of choice allowed to either the criminal or the normal citizen in his daily conduct." But for all that, buried in the middle of the book, is a chapter on the Evolution of Modern Penology which sums up so firmly and clearly the background and promise of current ideas on the cure of crime that it deserves the widest reading.

If Professor Barnes errs on the side of dogmatism, Dr. Platt slips toward the other end of the spectrum and is perhaps too gently reasonable. The color of the book may be judged from its subtitle, A Contribution to the Understanding of Those Who Do Wrong, and from the quotations from Carlyle scattered thickly through it. It is a sympathetic effort to substitute a reasonable moral perspective for the diffraction which commonly warps our view of the "criminal" and to apply that perspective to methods of dealing with him, but although it is based avowedly on determinism and scientific research it remains ethical in flavor. Like Professor Barnes, and even more broadly, Dr. Platt sees our duty to the criminal in terms of the regeneration of the whole social order. It is a book that should be administered in liberal doses to all bushwhackers and gawdsakers.

Unlike both of these authors, Mr. Stutsman is a practiced prison executive, and his book therefore stresses technique. It is broadly modern in viewpoint, though there remains a measurable gap between Mr. Stutsman's patient and admirable heaping up of the best current practice and Mr. Barnes' sweeping challenge to the whole penological system. Apparently intended as a text-book for the training of prison personnel, it brings together a mass of general principles and detailed observation: the picture it gives of prison administration should be checked against such surveys of American prisons as those made by the National Society for Penal Information (see The Survey, March 1, 1926). It is not wholly consistent: its general tenor, for example, is more in accord with contemporary thinking than is the first article of the Declaration of Principles promulgated in 1870 and reaffirmed by the American Prison Association in 1919, which it nevertheless quotes with approval:

> Crime is an intentional violation of duties imposed by law, which inflicts an injury upon others. Criminals are persons convicted of crime by competent courts. Punishment is suffering inflicted on the criminal for the wrong-doing done by him, with a special view to secure his reformation.

Until we get beyond the moral ideology of that statement, and make more intelligent choice of methods than is suggested by the twenty-first article of the same declaration —"preventive institutions, such as truant homes, industrial schools, etc., for the reception and treatment of children not yet criminal, but in danger of becoming so, constitute the true field of promise in which to labor for the repression of crime"—we are not likely to get far in really "curing" the criminal.

G. S.

THE REPRESSION OF CRIME, *by Harry Elmer Barnes. Doran. 382 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE RIDDLE OF SOCIETY, *by Charles Platt. Dutton. 306 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
CURING THE CRIMINAL, *by Jesse O. Stutsman. Macmillan. 409 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

Stores of Health

HEALTH CONTROL IN MERCANTILE LIFE, *by Arthur Brewster Emmons 2d, M.D. Harper. 234 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS book, devoted exclusively to mercantile health work, is the first on the subject to be published. For this reason and for the reason that the author has had wide experience in this subject, it fills a definite lack in the library of industrial hygiene.

Only administrative problems are dealt with and no mention is made of treatment. In addition to strictly medical topics the whole range of activities of a mercantile health department is discussion—dental service, safety, sanitation, mutual benefit associations, workmen's compensation, and so

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forth. With this range of subjects treatment is of necessity very brief but for those desirous of more detailed information, useful references are usually given.

There are few things to criticize in the book. Some physicians will disapprove of the advice on page 44 that young people should wear "sneakers" for their feet's sake and certainly Canadian readers will object to Sir William Osler being called "the greatest American physician."

The dollars and sense valuation discussed on pages 222-224 is not very convincing. The experience of the particular store during the three years for which records were kept certainly showed a reduction in morbidity but one does not know what the experience of the general population for those years was and one is inclined to suspect that in this year (1926) with the increase in influenza, the experience will not prove so favorable.

The chapter Legal Requirements Involving Health is of necessity very brief for an adequate statement would require a volume or two. The Massachusetts law is stressed and on page 198 there is a somewhat ambiguous statement which seems to indicate that Massachusetts permits self-insurance. This of course is not so.

Scientific words are for the most part eliminated and if used at all are refined. The merchant who is interested in a health service for his employes will do well to read this volume through. It should appeal to him quite as much as to the industrial physician.

FRANK G. PEDEY, M.D.

RUN OF THE SHELVES

A DESCRIPTIVE LIST OF THE NEW BOOKS

Industry

LEFT WING UNIONISM, *by David J. Saposs. International Publishers. 192 pp. Price $1.60 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE GENERAL strike in Great Britain, the left wing domination of the strike of the fur workers in New York, the dramatic uprising under communist leadership of the textile workers in Passaic, give a special timeliness to this study of the radical politics and tactics that have made their sporadic appearance among American wage-working groups. In the light of Mr. Saposs' analysis of the record, the reader will wonder at the prominence accorded "revolutionary radicalism" by the daily press and in the literature of the more conservative employers' organizations. Left wing attempts have never struck root either among the rank and file of American labor or in such intellectual tradition as the official labor movement has developed. They play about the fringes of our industrial life like wraiths or summer lightening. It is only occasionally as in the textile strike of 1912 in Lawrence, Massachusetts, the current strike in Passaic, or in the roistering activities of the I. W. W. in the western wheat fields and lumber camps in the years preceding the war, that they give evidence of more than momentary vitality. Even in the needle trades, with their predominantly Russian and Italian wage-working constituency, radical slogans and propaganda have been incidents of internal factional fights rather than expressions of substantial revolutionary forces. Mr. Saposs' book is of great value as the first authoritative appraisal of the range and strength of radical ideas, policies and tactics in the American labor movement. But why have these ideas and policies shown so much less vitality in America than in Europe? What is there in our economic, industrial and social life that smothers them before they learn how to walk? Have they any future in America? Mr. Saposs does not go into these questions of economic and social interpretation. Perhaps with his rare equipment for the task he will make them the subject of another book.

R. W. B.

Community Affairs

THE MELTING-POT MISTAKE, *by Henry Pratt Fairchild. Little Brown. 261 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

PROFESSOR FAIRCHILD states the case for the quantitative limitation and racial selection of immigrants with good temper and without the hysteria which has characterized much recent Nordicism. With some of his incidental conclusions observers of nearly all camps will heartily concur: that the post-war Americanization campaign had "insidious and pernicious phases"; that "there is certainly a profound need for a complete revision of our naturalization requirements and procedures"; that "the sine qua non of Americanization is that America should be lovable. . . . The problem . . . is at bottom just one phase of the great problem of social regeneration." But his fundamental theses will take much more proving than he has attempted here: his declaration that assimilation is essentially like metabolism—"Whatever Miss T eats turns into Miss T"—and so involves a "complete sacrifice of extraneous national traits"; his flat assertion that "assimilation takes place only under certain conditions, that these conditions do not exist in the United States at the present time." Professor Fairchild does not want to risk "the material, political and social standards of the average American"; he seems to be afraid of change.

THE FREEDOM OF THE CITY, *by Charles Downing Lay. Duffield. 115 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

A CHILDLIKE and pious litany to the Great God Town. After coming on p. 17 to the statement that the city as a social institution "is kindly and humanitarian in all its effort" the reader ceases to take the little fantasy seriously and settles back to see how far the author will go. *De gustibus non disputandum.*

AMERICAN VILLAGERS, *by C. Luther Fry. Doran. 200 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS important contribution from the Institute of Social and Religious Research to our understanding of the population drift of the American village has already been summarized in The Survey (June 15, 1926, p. 376).

THE CONQUEST OF NEW ENGLAND BY THE IMMIGRANT, *by Daniel Chauncey Brewer. Putnam. 369 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

A SORT of Bunker Hill Day oration expanded into a tract upon the theme: "Town, state and section statistics, with appalling vividness, present the finger of God smudging out the Yankee."

OUR TEMPLED HILLS, A STUDY OF THE CHURCH AND RURAL LIFE, *by Ralph A. Felton. Council of Women for Home Missions and Missionary Education Movement. 240 pp. Price, cloth $1.00, paper 60 cents, postpaid of The Survey.*

CONTEMPORARY ideas of rural church activity in popular form for study groups. Dollar books need not be so shabby in format.

MONGREL VIRGINIANS, *by Arthur H. Estabrook and Ivan E. McDougle. Williams & Wilkins. 205 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

REPORTS, with an admirable freedom from hasty deductions, the family history of an inbred Indian-Negro-white clan of Virginia, and notes briefly other groups of triple-cross families elsewhere in the South. The publishers claim for the book "vital and important bearings on racial integrity and the maintenance of the 'color line' in the South"—but a disinterested reader would hesitate to define its bearings on either. Certainly the record of illegitimacy and promiscuity here set forth gives very little basis for the authors' assertion that the "racial integrity law" of Virginia, even if enforceable, will really preserve racial integrity.

G. S.

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Experience and Nature

A Running Comment on John Dewey's Masterpiece

IX. What Is Behavior?

THE world moves: so the astronomers say, though Old Brother Jasper was not so sure of it. Things are moved: water runs down hill; winds blow; tides ebb and flow. These are all external movements, of which the objects in question are all the victims, as we may say.

Plants grow, and change; and though they do not travel much, they do respond to various types of stimulation, such as light, each in its own way. That is to say, they exhibit characteristics that may properly be called "behavior."

Animals grow and change, and move about: they walk, run, fly, swim; they chase each other; play with each other; dodge each other; kill each other. They *behave*. But in man, behavior becomes an enormously complicated achievement, or series of achievements.

Behavior is more than movement, more than action. A stone falls from a ledge. That is not behavior. The stone is acted upon externally: nothing happens to, or from, the inside. Behavior is action according to some plan; it has integrity of pattern; it is with respect to an objective. In behavior, therefore, something takes place on the inside: energies are re-distributed, in such ways as to bring about shifts in the direction of the action, so that the aim may be pursued, no matter what the changes in conditions.

To be sure, an animal might fall off a ledge and suffer the fate of the stone; but even in the occurrence, the animal would "fight for its life," catching at branches and projecting rocks all the way down, and, maybe, breaking the fall in a way a stone could not do. There is, evidently, something in animals that is not found in stones.

But, if there is a qualitative difference between stones and animals, is there any such difference within the field of animal behavior? Psychology has, for ages, said "yes"; modern behavior-ists say "no": what do Nature and Experience say?

The most constructive movements in modern philosophy have quite definitely accepted the doctrine of "emergence" in evolution. According to this doctrine the "whole" is frequently, if not always, greater than the sum of its "parts"; and the "whole" is not to be predicted from an examination of the "parts." The stream of evolution is, thus, ever rising higher than its "source"; and man has "ascended" rather than "descended." This stream has risen from one level to another, until at present at least three qualitatively distinct levels can be found, as follows:

First level: that of external relationships, as between things, with mechanical movement as its characteristic. This is the physical level.

Second level: that of living things, which use the physical, organize it according to patterns, and integrate behavior with respect to desired aims. This is the psycho-physical level.

Third level: that of associative living, with participation in meanings, with escape from mere impulse, and response to selected, reconstructed, treasured, deferred and distant meanings. This is the level of "mind as intellect."

Each of these levels integrates and uses what has gone before. Mind uses physiological structures; physiological structures use physical materials. The higher uses the lower; but the lower does not explain the higher. The higher is always something more than can be predicted from the mere examination of the lower. There is nothing properly to be called "behavior" on the physical level. There is "behavior" on the psycho-physical level. There is "deliberative behavior" on the intellectual level.

Behavior-ists will not accept this third level, or its implications. The best advertised type of "behaviorism" is able to agree that there is a physical level in experience; and also an organic level: that is all. All the complex phenomena of experience can be explained by a few simple principles: "soul" is off; "mind" is away; "consciousness" is outlawed; "intellect" is a myth; only one thing is real, namely, the "conditioned reflex": by means of this simple factor all the elaborate phenomena of life and time have come into being, and can now be explained; or, if not, they can be ignored, denied, pushed to one side and "explained" as of no moment.

For current behavior-ism has ceased to be an inquiry into the wide domains of social and individual living, and it has become a bit of sacred dogma, with its own exclusive methods and its own private isolations from "the follies of the past."

Now, behavior is undoubtedly the most satisfactory basis from which to explore the problems of organized living. But if *behaviorism* is to be an exploration of nature and experience, and not a medieval dogma, it must be willing to deal with the evidence, and reconstruct itself whenever the evidence calls for reconstruction. Present behavior-ism deals rather convincingly with behavior on physiological levels; so that many narrowly specialized psychologists, not quite daring to question dogmatisms whose metaphysical foundations they do not understand, have accepted this current doctrine as final, though they are not very happy in their surrender.

But we move on toward a more realistic behaviorism: a behaviorism that is interested in understanding and explaining the whole of behavior, not in denying or ignoring parts of it. The organization of behavior patterns is one of the most obvious facts of our experience; the organization of carefully deliberated, critically relevant behavior patterns is quite as obvious a fact of our experience. And though such an admission may be a bitter pill for our "simplificationists" to swallow, yet the fact is inescapable: so much so, says Professor Dewey, that any theory which accepts the fact can never be quite so purely speculative or absurd as the theory which ignores or denies the fact.

EXPERIENCE AND NATURE, *by John Dewey. Open Court Publishing Co. 443 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

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THE SOCIAL WORK SHOP

House Organs for Year-Around Publicity

Address delivered by William Feather before Division XII, National Conference of Social Work, Cleveland, May 28, 1926. Mr. Feather is head of the William Feather Company, Cleveland, Ohio, publishers of house organs.

HOUSE organs, or publications issued at regular intervals, have been used by many social agencies for logical reasons. The agencies expect to be in existence for a long time. They depend for their existence upon the good-will and confidence of a large number of people who are not in daily or even weekly contact with the work.

The purpose of a publication is to inform these people of what is being done and what should be done. I know of no way in which this can be accomplished so effectively as through a house organ.

Cost of publication, including printing, postage, addressing, cuts and all items except editing, ranges from about three cents to fifteen cents a copy. The larger the edition the smaller the unit cost of printing. The postage unit remains the same—one and one-half cents a copy. Only one agency, to my knowledge, has obtained the second-class privilege from the post office under which the rate is one and one-half cents a pound. I assume that this rate is obtained by including in the pledge card of each contributor a line which reads "Twenty-five cents of this subscription is to pay for one year's subscription to the bulletin." It occurs to me that many subscribers, seeing this line on their subscription card might say, "There's a waste." Subscribers are always criticizing philanthropic agencies for spending money for printed matter. Such criticisms must be considered, but they should not be taken too seriously. Printing is the most economical method of spreading information.

My first plea is for good copy, good writing. I am glad to say that all the agencies seem to have discovered that a satisfactory bulletin cannot be edited by a committee. It is a one-man job. I prefer a small four-page bulletin, crowded with facts and human interest, to a fat, dreary magazine where the editor's chief problem has been to dig up enough material to fill the pages.

Are these bulletins, these house organs, read? is a question that is always asked. I publish a large group of house organs for commercial houses and that is the question that is asked me by my customers.

After two or three issues have been sent out most of my customers find it difficult to resist the temptation to enclose a postcard, and demand an expression of interest as the price of continued receipt of the publication. Such questionaires are sometimes flattering; often they are depressing.

I do not favor questionaires about publication any more than I favor questionaires about salesmen. A business man would not think of asking his customers and prospects to tell him whether he should continue having his salesmen call. A money-raising agency would not think of asking its contributors to indicate whether they wished a solicitor to call. I assume that a house organ contains essential information that contributors should have. It should be sent to them, if the executive committee thinks the procedure is wise, without seeking an expression of interest.

Social agency house organs fall into two general groups. One type is published for the information of contributors and volunteer solicitors. The circulation of such house organs ranges from 4,000 to 30,000. The other is an internal house organ, published for the purpose of supplying information to agency workers and directors. Its purpose is to supply a calendar of meetings, to promote morale, and so forth.

In typography the common failing is the use of too small type. Because the publications are small the assumption seems to have been that the type must be small. My thought is that no type face less than nine or ten-point should be used, and that there should always be one-point of spacing between lines. In other words ask your printer to set ten-point type on eleven-point body, or eleven-point on twelve-point body. Use the blue pencil generously in editing copy, save words, and make your publication easy to read.

It is needless to say that pictures are universally attractive. In appealing to all except paid workers, use all the cuts you can afford.

I am glad that among my samples are a few examples of mimeographed house organs. I recently discussed the printing of an internal house organ with one of the men in the Cleveland Welfare Federation, and I told him I did not think any house organ could be printed for much less than $30. His contemplated edition for an internal magazine was only 250. I suggested multigraphing, and my advice was followed, with excellent results. For an internal house organ, or a house organ with a circulation limited to 200 or 300 I strongly urge that you investigate the possibilities of the mimeograph.

One publication has undertaken to meet the cost of publication through the solicitation of paid advertising. This gives me an opportunity to warn you against setting up false hopes. You can sell paid advertising space yourself, or you can hire professional solicitors to sell space for a commission, but I do not favor such tactics. The space cannot be sold on merits. The principal appeal is that the purchase of space is going to help out. The business houses that are selling supplies to the agencies can often be persuaded to buy space, and directors of organizations will often insert advertisements, but the buyer regards the purchase as a gift to charity and when he makes his contribution to the Fund he takes this into consideration.

To summarize:

1. A house organ is a perfect form of year-around publicity, far superior to the occasional, hit or miss mailing.
2. One hundred dollars per issue is the approximate minimum for a circulation of 2500.
3. Fifteen dollars per issue is the approximate minimum for a circulation of 250, mimeographed.
4. Let one person edit and be responsible for the publication. He may be supervised by a committee, but that is as far as the committee should be allowed to go.
5. Buy good printing, even though you have to be satisfied with a smaller size, or a smaller edition.
6. Use no type smaller than ten-point and get extra spacing between lines.
7. Use as many cuts as you can afford.
8. Publish on a definite day each month, or each quarter, and stick to your schedule.
9. Do not solicit paid advertising.

WILLIAM FEATHER.

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ASK A QUESTION

A COLUMN IN WHICH PROBLEMS OF SOCIAL WORK TECHNIQUE ARE THRESHED OUT FROM TIME TO TIME

Question: Should a foster family be given the facts of the child's history before permanent placing or adoption, and if so, how much?

Answered by C. C. Carstens, executive director of the Child Welfare League of America, New Cork city.

WHETHER a foster parent should be told the essential facts of a child's heredity and bringing up before its adoption is a controversial question in child welfare—whether the foster child should be told is even more so. There are those placing children who still believe that the facts that are not known will not worry anyone and they apply the adage here, "if ignorance is bliss, 'tis folly to be wise." It is, however, just this ignorance that the psychologists and psychiatrists are pointing to as keeping foster parents and children from attaining the promised bliss.

There has therefore come into existence another group who will tell parents "the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth," who as a matter of principle believe that truth telling is the greatest virtue and would insist that a parent can only with his eyes open make the proper decisions in view of all the facts in the case.

There is another group that is inclined to say "circumstances alter cases," to which the writer belongs. They say, "the truth, nothing but the truth, but not necessarily the whole truth."

There are two groups of foster parents. To those who want to know the facts, the child's heredity, his family history, and the essential elements in his upbringing if no longer a mere child, should be told before his being placed for adoption, and certainly before adoption. These parents should be told all they want to know but with a proper balance so that things that may not be of great consequence may not be made into mountains of objection when they are only molehills of interest. Any essentials that might later become known should be made available likewise and the agency should expect to tell the child at the age of sixteen all the essentials of his own family, including its location, if the child applies for them. A conspiracy of silence is no more justifiable here than anywhere else in social service. To those who believe that professional ethics forbids revealing such facts at the request of the foster parent, we would say that the child is our client and not the foster family.

Then there is the family that does not want to know. Here circumstances alter cases. If the child has an average heredity and exhibits no unusual problems, I believe the facts should not be forced upon the foster parents; but if they desire later to be informed of the essential facts in the case these should be made available and the promise made that if the child asks for the information after the age of sixteen he will be informed of the facts with reasonable reserve, taking into account all the circumstances of the case.

The child of unusual inheritance should not be adopted to parents who insist on remaining in ignorance, as they are most certain to be called upon to decide questions involving either conduct treatment or opportunities in development that require more knowledge than they have equipped themselves with, to make correct interpretations or take necessary steps.

Miscellaneous

ON THE THEORY that a physician is the best agent in presenting facts about public health to the people, the Health Conservation League of Kansas City and the Jackson County Medical Society are holding a public health institute this summer to develop good public speakers among the members of the county medical society. A local survey indicates that there are 1,500 group meetings, large and small, which would welcome health talks. Instruction is given two evenings a week by experts in public speaking and public health.

THE American Home Economics Association and the Rumford Historical Association, Woburn, Mass., co-operatively offer a price of $100 for the best essay on County Rumford and His Contributions to Home Economics. The contest is open to all who wish to enter and will close October 1, 1926. Full details from Helen W. Atwater, Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C.

THE Louisville School of Social Work, started in 1923 with Morjory Warren as director, becomes in the fall a part of the undergraduate department of the University of Louisville. Mary S. Brisby is present director of the school.

National Conference of Social Work

The division chairmen for 1926-27 are:

1. *Children,* Elsa Ueland.
2. *Delinquents and Correction,* George W. Kirchwey.
3. *Health,* Dr. William F. Snow.
4. *Family,* Mary F. Bogue.
5. *Industrial and Economic Problems,* William Leiserson.
6. *Neighborhood and Community Life,* Eva W. White.
7. *Mental Hygiene,* Marion G. Kenworthy.
8. *Organization of Social Forces,* Charles C. Stillman.
9. *Public Officials and Administration,* Dr. Ellen C. Potter.
10. *Immigrant,* Mary S. McDowell.
11. *Professional Standards and Education,* Neva R. Deardorff.
12. *Educational Publicity,* Mary Swain Routzahn.

American Association of Hospital Social Workers

An incorrect list of the new members of the Executive Committee was submitted to The Survey and published in the June 15 issue. The following is a corrected list: Grace Bolen, New York; Ida Cannon, Boston; Miriam Finkelstein, Pittsburgh; Cornelia Hopkins, Chicago; Elizabeth Nairn, St. Louis; Mabel Wilson, Boston.

GOSSIP

Elections and Appointments

FRANCES ATKINSON as financial secretary, New York Traveler's Aid Society.

MARGARET M. DEVINE as director of recreation, Bedford Hills, Bedford Village, Bedford Center, Katonah and Mt. Kisco (instead of Bedford Reformatory for Girls as previously announced).

ANNA M. DRAKE as assistant secretary and director of health education, Cincinnati Public Health Federation, succeeding MARY L. HICKS.

JOSEPHINE DUFF as executive secretary, A.R.C., Murphysboro, Illinois.

ANITA ELDRIDGE as chairman of the State Conference Secretaries for 1926-27.

JOYCE ELY as Red Cross Nursing field representative for Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi and Louisiana.

EDITH GLENN as supervisor, Mothers' Assistance Fund of Philadelphia County.

ALICE R. HAINES to the Division of County Organizations, Georgia State Board of Public Welfare.

MAE HENDRICKSON as executive secretary, A.R.C., Omulgee, Okla.

VIRGINIA HIGGINS in charge of the child guidance clinic, Springfield (Mass.) Hospital Dispensary.

WILLIAM E. HIPSLEY as assistant field director, A.R.C., Schofield Barracks, Hawaii.

KATHERINE M. JOHNSON as family visitor, Mothers' Assistance Fund of Philadelphia County.

DOROTHY HONEYWELL JOHNSTON as Red Cross field representative for New York.

MARIE KAUFMAN as executive secretary, A.R.C., Beaumont, Texas.

FRANK LOVELAND, JR., as state agent in the Division of Adult Delinquency, Georgia State Dept. of Public Welfare.

J. W. McGOWAN as secretary, Catholic Big Brothers of Pittsburgh.

ELLEN M. MAXWELL as Red Cross hospital social worker, U. S. Veteran's Hospital, Northampton, Mass.

VICTORIA MOODY as Red Cross field representative for nothern Kansas.

JAY B. NASH, formerly superintendent of the Recreation Department, Oakland, Calif., as associate professor of physical education, New York University.

CECIL V. PEARCE as Red Cross recreational worker at U. S. Veterans' Hospital, Outwood, Ky.

FELICITA C. PELLEGRINI as executive secretary, A.R.C., Springfield, Mass.

NAN ROACH as executive secretary, Erie County (Buffalo, N. Y.) Board of Child Welfare, succeeding ADA RUTH BURNS, deceased.

MARGARET T. SHARP as executive secretary, A.R.C., Milwaukee.

A. BYRON SHAPLEIGH to the S.P.C.C., Springfield, Mass.

DR. WILLARD B. SLOOPER as municipal director of tuberculosis, New Haven.

EVA SMIL as executive secretary of the C.O.S., New Orleans.

BEULAH E. SMITH as director of Red Cross Service, U. S. Veterans Bureau Out-Patient Clinic, Boston.

HELEN H. SMITH as case supervisor, Children's Bureau, State Board of Public Welfare, Virginia, succeeding Loomis Logan.

MRS. ROLLA A. SOUTHWORTH as Red Cross recreational assistant at U. S. Veterans' Hospital, Castle Point, N. Y.

CHARLOTTE STEWART as Red Cross field representative for Arkansas.

LUCILLE STOFFER as executive secretary, A.R.C., St. Paul.

CHRISTINE TARPINIAN as visitor for the Family Welfare Association, Springfield, Mass.

LAURA HILL VIELEY as probation officer, Juvenile Court, Miami.

ARCHDEACON HARRY LEE VIRDEN as president of the Texas Conference of Social Work.

ROWAN WHEALDON as executive secretary, Cattaraugus County (N. Y.) Tuberculosis and Public Health Association.

F. WALDO ZIEGLER to the Georgia State Board of Public Welfare, doing educational work.

Resignations

LOUIS BROWNLOW as city manager of Knoxville. FRANK BANE his commissioner of public welfare, returns to his position as state commissioner of public welfare, Virginia.

ALICE WALDO from staff of Volunteer Defenders' Committee, Brooklyn Legal Aid Society.

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COMMUNICATIONS

18th Amendment Practically Unanimous

TO THE EDITOR: I often see it said, even by ministers, that the Prohibition Amendment does not represent general public opinion and for that reason is less entitled to support. It does not in cities, but in the country the approval is almost universal. The amendment could have been passed by 36 of the 48 states, but practically only one-half of one small state, Connecticut, refused to ratify. The New Jersey house voted, 52 to 4, for the amendment and in the senate it lacked only a single vote of the necessary two-thirds. If the New Jersey senate had given this one more vote little Connecticut would have been the sole state which refused to ratify, and there the house voted for it, 153 to 96, but the senate against it, 14 to 20. Rhode Island dodged and did not vote at all. Our 48 states were practically unanimous.

Talk of the repeal of the amendment is piffle; and violation of it is certainly lawless.

FREDERIC ALMY

Buffalo

The Senator from Maryland

TO THE EDITOR: I have just received from some source, perhaps directly from you, a copy of the May 15, 1926, issue of The Survey.

Dr. Emerson's idea that there was little real evidence offered at the recent senate prohibtion hearing is, in my opinion, so preposterous that you should open your columns to someone capable of making a searching and dispassionate examination of the evidence.

I, myself, laid before the senate committee the table of figures showing that arrests for drunkenness in thirty-two of the leading cities of the Union, scattered over the whole face of the country, have been steadily mounting upwards, with fluctuations too negligible to be worthy of mention, since the enactment of the Volstead Act. The figures which enter into this table were obtained by me from the chiefs of police of the cities in question, and in some instances were communicated reluctantly. I also laid before the committee a letter written to me by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, showing that the death rate per 100,000 policy holders, from alcoholism, among its 17,000,000 industrial policy holders, was nearly five times higher in 1925 than in 1920, the year the Volstead Act went into effect.

It was also I who first brought to the attention of the committee, the statement made in a letter written to me by General Andrews, the director of prohibition enforcement, that 875 persons had been dismissed from the prohibition force, in most instances, for official corruption, or downright rascality in some form or another.

These proofs, all of which are of such a nature as to have the very highest degree of probative force, are enough alone to make up the case against Prohibition. In other words, there has been no such thing as Prohibition in the United States since the enactment of the Volstead Act, and therefore claims of ameliorated health, improved morals, diminished unemployment and increased savings bank deposits cannot justly or even reasonably be founded upon the practical effects of Prohibition.

If arrests for drunkenness are increasing every year, and more persons are dying every year from alcoholism, how can these facts be logically disassociated from all the morbid, social sequels of every sort that flow from intemperance?

WM. CABELL BRUCE

U. S. Senate Committee on Civil Service

Prohibition Enforcement

TO THE EDITOR: Dr. Haven Emerson's splendid article on The Prohibition Hearings in the May 15th issue of The Survey, ought to arouse every social worker in the country.

For fourteen years, I was general secretary of the Associated Charities of Des Moines. When we had 86 saloons there the ministerial association asked our office to make a survey of the causes which brought poor families to our doors. We traced 26 per cent of our cases to liquor drinking and the influence of the saloon. One full year after saloons were closed, we made another analysis, this time more searching and we found liquor drinking as a cause of poverty at Des Moines had dropped to 9.6 per cent. From time to time since then, the annual reports show a continuous decline. Three years ago was the last time I had anything to do with the annual report and the liquor habit as a cause of poverty was practically negligible—seven one-hundredths of one per cent. And this in spite of the fact that boot-legging goes on in Des Moines much as it does in other places.

The Eighteenth Amendment and the Volstead Act can be enforced. To do this, we must have the right officers and it is possible to get them. Des Moines elected a physician and surgeon several years ago as sheriff. Personally he was supposed to be rather liberal and there was a question about law enforcement. He came out flat-footed, however, and said that his own personal views had nothing to do with the laws and that every law on the books would be impartially enforced. I doubt whether there are many cities where so many boot-legging criminals have been convicted. The sheriff and his force in cooperation with the police, are, little by little grinding down the nefarious traffic.

I just wanted you to know these facts and to assure you that it is my belief that eventually, we will win out in the fight. No one could have stated the case in a stronger way than Dr. Emerson has done.

H. S. HOLLINGSWORTH

Executive Secretary, Rockford (Ill.) Social Service Federation

Study Your Measuring Stick

TO THE EDITOR: Measuring standards are good only if they are assuredly accurate and reliable. They demand an accepted and—with due regard to Einstein—unvarying point of reference. Can social work satisfy these requirements?

In regard to a measuring stick wherewith to judge communities and their work with dependent children, the following considerations may be of interest:

To decide "How many dependent children a given city should care for," such factors as standards of living, compulsory education laws, industrial conditions, housing conditions and the ratio of children of school age to adult working population will have to be part of the "future intensive study," as well as the ratio of dependent children to total population and to total child population, if the figures and graphs are to be transformed from merely interesting into really important statistics. Without such factors, it can easily be seen that deductions in regard to a particular place are more than likely to be wrong, misleading and harmful.

The total number of children cared for in any particular place should be modified by reports on how much space in local institutions is being given or sold to other communities,

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and how many local children are being cared for in foreign communities. The larger communities are probably taking care of institutional cases for places which are too small or too poor to provide their own facilities. This is certainly true in some parts of the country.

The assumption that Rochester and Wilkes-Barre, because the average length of stay is about 33 months, are doing less well than Des Moines and Omaha, where the average length of stay is about five months, is unjustified. Perhaps the latter cities are perpetrating an unhuman machine-like handling of inarticulate wards. To "speed up turnover" will indeed reach more children, but will it "serve" the children or will it serve the community better?

Similarly, the implied opinion—for it is clearly indicated in the text, although not explicitly formulated—that Duluth, because it runs at less than 75 per cent institutional capacity, is doing better than Canton which runs at nearly 95 per cent, is unjustified. To base conclusions on such assumptions as are here implied, destroys even the appearance of scientific value for the whole paper. One of the finest directors of child-placement work in the country was confronted, a few years ago, with the want of new homes for new cases. It was explained away by "the law of diminishing returns" and other erudite rationalizations. As a matter of fact it was the normal accumulation of a system which refused to throw a child out because he had turned 16, or because an unworthy parent could be found and made to take the child. It took the war, which almost robbed cradles to secure labor, to clear away the accumulation, which has now begun to roll up again. The good institution is in the same position.

From which it may appear that, "to social workers generally, and to those interested in community organization in particular, these facts should indicate the need"—for measuring sticks devised with due consideration of all the facts at command, and not a partial array of selected data. They indicate a need for intelligent study, *not* a blind acceptance and unquestioning use of the measuring sticks we have been offered. Social workers have a right and a duty to ask *proof* that the proffered measuring standards give just weight and a just measure.

S. L.

Dentistry: Going to the Roots

(*Continued from page* 466)

may know how to live. Let us try reasonable experiments, but call them experiments, and in the meantime let us do the obvious thing—take care of existing conditions as est we know and devote much of our wealth of brains and money to research so that we may learn to live, serve and enjoy.

Thus the dental profession is changing from empiricism to a practice foundedd on the truths tediously revealed from the storehouse of knowledge. This ever increasing requirement is closing the doors to more and more who might choose to enter the portals of a useful profession. The decreasing number of recruits constantly increases the cost of service to the public.

The public wants high-grade men and the best of service, but most of all it must and will have service. Unless the dental profession can find the means of rendering more service to the people at a price they can afford to pay the people will find the way themselves and it will be an obvious way, not one dictated by intelligences but just a "way out.' The people will lower the state requirements and dentistry would then cease to be a dignified profession and become a technical trade. We must solve the problems that confront our generation. One is to provide some service for the public at a price society can afford to pay. But the greatest and most profound problem before us is that of prevention.

HARRIS R. C. WILSON

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Advertising	$28,183.37	
Lots	6,915.66	
Road, trench work, excavating, labor and material on Fireproof Annex, put up for safety of sickest patients	85,663.66	
Electric Power Plant for Lighting and Well and Laundry Machinery	4,215.12	
Furnishing of Annex	6,972.74	
Accident Insurance	988.02	
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Plans, Architect's Fee, Survey	1,792.00	
Electric Well Installation	4,398.90	
Plants and Trees	466.65	
Expense in connection with lecture given to Fund by Jas. J. Walsh, M. D., Ph. D.	866.88	
		$147,923.86
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Speaking of the Inquiry

Professor Kilpatrick said in The Survey for May 15th:

"The name under which the books are published, The Inquiry, indicates a new attitude—a new spirit and method of dealing with disputed questions. The books are built on the theory that inquiry is the best method of dealing with those who differ from us. I think I am right; so does the other man. We should both prefer the truth of the matter to what either of us has thus far thought was true. If we can come together in true cooperative spirit, we shall both have a better chance to learn, and on this basis truth has the best chance to prevail."

Here are some of the new publications of The Inquiry to which he referred:

Creative Discussion—An untechnical guide to group discussion procedure. Price 25 cents.

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Children Travelling Alone

(*Continued from page* 460)

its significance. The annual statistics compiled from the reports of the 67 organized units of the National Association of Travelers' Aid Societies are startling in the number of children they reveal. During the past year approximately 40,000 of the 1,500,000 travelers aided throughout the United States, or about 3 per cent, were children under sixteen who were unaccompanied by an adult. Many of these children were placed under the care of a Travelers Aid worker at the start of the journey by parent or guardian, with arrangements to care for the changes through to the destination. Large numbers were children on the train alone, who were approached by the Travelers Aid worker as the passengers filed out, or were turned over to her by fellow passengers, or by the railroad men, who are unfailing in their kindness toward children and their willingness to accept a responsibility quite outside the duties of their work. Yet even more disturbing than the mere numbers of the children are the vistas of family life which lie behind and before these young visitors.

VIVIAN H. GREENE

On Their Way

(*Continued from page* 454)

and meeting yet more payments. In fact, she assures you that she has never known an Italian whose mortgage has been foreclosed. So Josephine is quite certain that her Italian neighbors are assured of a place in the sun of her city, with a little patch of grass and a bit of garden for it to shine upon.

Yet there is a sombre tone in what Josephine has to say. She remembers the night when her father came home dazed and bleeding from a missile thrown by a gang bent on chasing the "dagoes" from the street, and she recalls vividly the bitterness with which he used to remind his children of the significance of the scar that it left. Her father died from the results of an industrial accident in the days before workmen's compensation. More than that, Josephine had a bitter time collecting the back pay that was due her father, for, under pressure from his foreman, he had, unbeknownst to his family, assumed an "American" name at his place of employment. She knows how she has had to plead with employers not to lay off Italians at the very outset of any slackening in business. She realizes all this and more.

And yet she snaps her fingers at all that as if it were of little account. For she has also watched, year after year, her Italian neighbors win their way to steadier and better paid work by dint of sheer toil and steadfast faithfulness. She has sensed the growing dependence of the employers upon them . She has seen the fruit of their brawn and skill in the pavements, the tunnels, the buildings, the schools, and the churches of her city. And she knows that America is bound to give some of its better things to these swarthy little men because we need them.

Pasquale Isn't Interviewed

Pasquale wouldn't be interviewed. Pasquale was a successful business man, dealing daily with Americans as well as Italians, and he had a wholesome dread of the possible reactions upon his clientele of being "quoted" on race relations in industry.

Moreover, Pasquale could not quite see why the professor should be bothering him or anybody else on such a question. There wasn't any particular problem that he could see.

Did the Italian get along well with the other race groups? Most certainly! The Italian was always friendly, and had no quarrel with anyone. To be sure, it had not always been so. In the old days, when Pasquale was a green lad, just over from Italy, the Italian boys had had to battle with the *Iresi* (Irish) gangs for the chance to sell papers or to shine shoes or even to go to school. But all that was over now. Was the Italian not sometimes discriminated against? Well, that depended. It depended chiefly on the foreman. If the foreman was not Italian, it might be hard for the Italian workman to find a job, and harder yet to hold it when times were dull and men were being laid off. But then, there were many Italian foremen these days. Did the professor know that all the fine stone mason and stone cutting work in the city was done by Italians? More than that, there were now many Italian contractors, bossing big jobs on their own account. There had been in the old days, hardships, and misundestandings, and injustices in plenty, as one had to expect in coming to a new country. But it wasn't that way now, and would not be in the future.

"No," Pasquale concluded, thumping the table, "I ain't any Italian of yesterday. I'm an American of today and tomorrow, and so are my kids. And we've got our place in America, and we're going to keep it, and there ain't nobody going to take it away from us!"

He bowed and smiled the professor out of his store, but not without a final admonition, "You see, there ain't any use trying to interview me; I haven't got anything to talk about."

NILES CARPENTER

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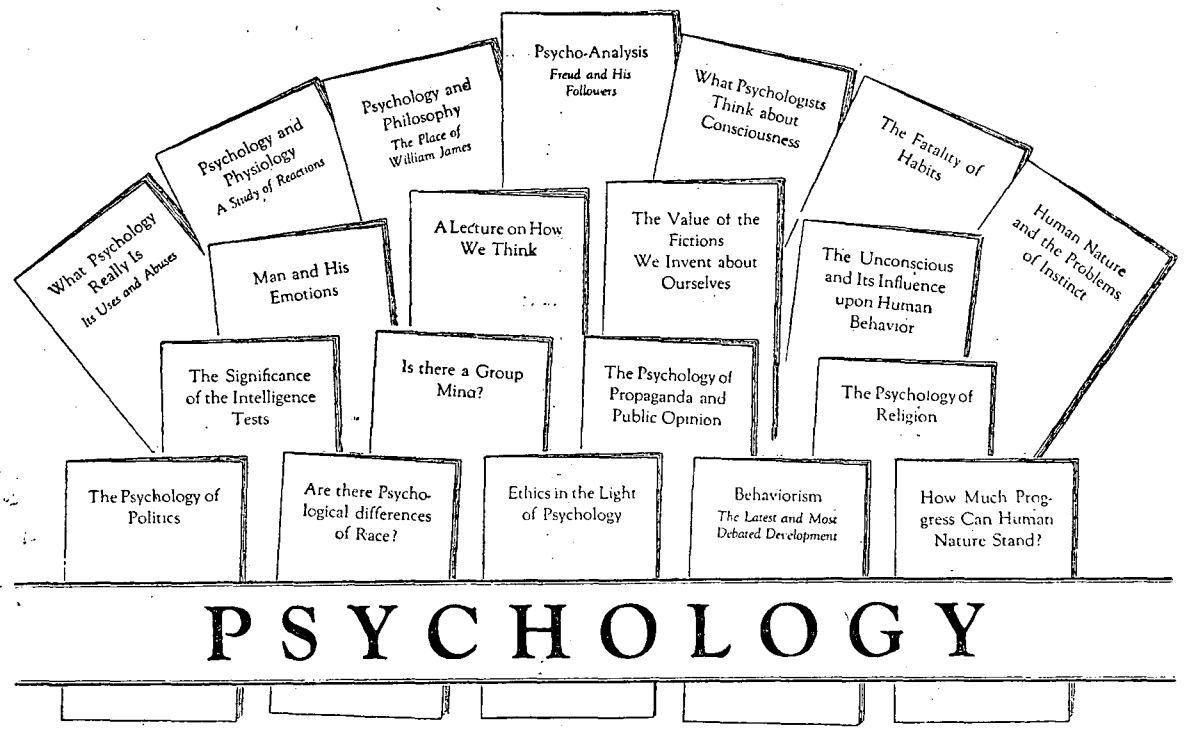
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